

The Nation

VOL. VIII., No. 20.]
Registered as a Newspaper.

SATURDAY, FEBRUARY 11, 1911.

[PRICE 6D.
Postage: U.K. 1d. Abroad, 1d.

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Diary of the Week.

PARLIAMENT was opened in State by the King and Queen on Monday. The Speech, read by the King in the House of Lords, was colorless in phrasing, save for a warm filial reference to King Edward's death and a tribute to the Duke of Connaught's visit to South Africa, but satisfactory in substance. It minimised the interference in Southern Persia, declaring that it was limited to the protection of trade and the restoration of the authority of the Persian Government. It described the Veto Bill as a measure for settling the relations of the two Houses, with the object of securing the "more effective working of the Constitution," and said that it would be submitted "without delay." The only other measures specifically mentioned are Bills for extending Old Age Pensions to persons in receipt of Poor Law relief, and those for setting up insurance against sickness, invalidity, and unemployment. In pursuance of the plan of immediate action on the Veto, the Government have properly taken all the private members' time up to Easter. This tactic is obviously aimed at the Opposition's design of debating the Veto Bill up to and past the Coronation, and all sections of the Ministerial majority assent to it.

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THE prospects of the Canadian Reciprocity Treaty were good from the first, and they now leave little to be desired. American opinion is so favorable, that even in the agricultural regions of the North-West States, which have something to fear from Canadian competition, the Press declares for it with enthusiasm. The democratic caucus of the Lower House has met and decided to support the Treaty, which thus has an assured majority in the House of Representatives. Even in the Senate the danger is not a direct defeat but obstruction designed to protract the discussion up to March 4th,

when the Session closes. Little can be gained by such tactics, for Mr. Taft has only to call it together thereafter for a special Session, in which the newly-elected Democratic victors will easily turn the scales. In Canada the real position is fairly clear. In the Canadian House of Commons, Mr. Monk sprung a delaying amendment on the proposal to go into Committee of Ways and Means on the Agreement, and was beaten by ninety-seven to seventy-two. The figures suggest some Liberal defections, which, however, should be nearly balanced by six new supporters from the West, who are expected to detach themselves from the minority which Mr. Borden leads.

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NOT only the stars but their own follies fight against the Protectionist Party in this country. The Reciprocity Agreement between Canada and the United States obviously benefits both those countries, and indirectly, but also clearly, ourselves. But it deals a deadly blow at the policy of Imperial Preference. Straightway, in language ranging from sheer insult to covert attack, this party expresses its chagrin by seeking to restrain Canada from doing what it is her interest to do. The insult came from the Bench, Mr. Justice Grantham remarking that Canada's idea of reciprocity with England was to send "her criminals" over here to be punished—as if Dr. Crippen were a Canadian—and "in other matters" to seek reciprocity with the States.

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MR. BALFOUR's tone was less scandalous than Mr. Justice Grantham's, but not much wiser. On Monday, at a Constitutional Club dinner, he—an ex-Prime Minister—appealed to the Canadian Opposition—the party "who agree with us"—to maintain the cause of Canadian Preferences, and on the same day, in the House of Commons, described the Agreement as "a great Imperial disaster." On Thursday a letter was issued in the name of Mr. Chamberlain the elder, stating that the Canadian people had been "rather premature," and regretting that they had not waited till the meeting of the Colonial Conference. Various members of Mr. Chamberlain's party in the House of Commons hinted that other Colonies might object, or even set matters right at the Conference. We cannot imagine a more ignorant suggestion. Not a single British Colony would dream of interfering with Canada's absolute discretion in the framing of her tariff.

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THESE indirect attacks on Canadian statesmanship were concentrated on Wednesday in an Opposition amendment to the Address moved by Mr. Austen Chamberlain. The amendment put the burden of the agreement on the Government's refusal to "modify the fiscal system" of this country. As every Protectionist has argued that the result of preferences would be to lower food prices here, the inducement to Canada has not been obvious. But the "Times" thought it necessary to administer a gruff word of caution. The matter, it said, primarily concerned, not us, but the peoples of Canada and America, and should therefore be debated in Parliament with "circumspection" and "reserve." If the Opposition used the agreement as a stick to beat the Liberals with, "it might fall upon friends whom they would be sorry to hurt."

[February 11, 1911.]

THUS admonished, Mr. Chamberlain, while blaming English Liberals rather than Canadians, insisted that wheat lands would go out of cultivation in the States. In this way, owing to the drainage of the Canadian supply, our own food would cost us more. Beaten in Canada, he argued that the policy of preferences must flee to other Colonies. Mr. Rea and Sir Alfred Mond showed the historic and irresistible force of the trade movement between Canada and the States. The extreme note of anti-Imperialism was struck by Mr. Page Croft, who insisted that the agreement was a step towards the disintegration of the Empire. So it would have been, if a form of Imperial Preference had already been set up.

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ON Wednesday a corrective to this loose talk was supplied by Mr. Fielding, the powerful Canadian statesman who negotiated the Agreement. In a message to the High Commissioner, Mr. Fielding pointed out that reciprocity with the States was an historic Canadian ideal, fully endorsed by the greatest of Canadian Conservatives—Sir John Macdonald—and that it was America's, not Canada's, unwillingness which had hitherto stopped its realisation. Canada was now fulfilling the desires of her people for half-a-century. But she did not dream of touching the British preferences; and, when the Agreement had been adopted, would probably enhance them. This point was also made by Mr. Buxton, in answering Mr. Chamberlain the younger. Mr. Buxton showed that out of £20,000,000 worth of goods which we sell to Canada, only £316,000, or 1½ per cent., could be in any way affected by the Agreement. Even on these goods the future British duties would at least be identical with the American duties.

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MR. AUSTEN CHAMBERLAIN's amendment was rejected on Thursday night by a majority of 102 (324 to 222). The Prime Minister dealt with its author with some severity, showing that he had gravely misrepresented Sir Wilfrid Laurier by quoting, from a comparatively worthless source, a statement that if Tariff Reform had conquered at the General Election, there could have been no large measure of reciprocity with the States. Sir Wilfrid's contention is, of course, the opposite one, that reciprocity is an inevitable, instinctive, and long-pursued object of the Canadian people. Sir John Simon put this point in a nutshell when he asked whether an offer of 2s. a quarter on wheat from us would have been accepted against an American offer of 8s. a quarter. The "Daily Mail," hot on the scent of its new doctrine, puts the same dilemma when it asks how we can expect the Canadian farmer to take a preference of 3d. a bushel for his wheat in Great Britain when he can get a profit of 7½d. in the United States, and to bar out a new market of "one hundred million consumers?"

* * *

THE Prime Minister's speech on the Address on Monday was notable for the emphatic cordiality of its references to France and the Entente. It was, no doubt, intended to dispel the recent suggestions of any coldness. We discuss the position elsewhere. The Entente has failed of late to be fruitful, in our view, rather through the inert diplomacy of our agents in Turkey than from any coldness in London or Paris. Of Russia, on the other hand, Mr. Asquith said nothing. Even more emphatic, however, than his reference to France was the warmth of his congratulations to Italy on the jubilee of her unity. The response from Rome has been prompt and cordial. Speaking to a motion of thanks

from the Chambers, Signor Luzzati, the Prime Minister, referred to the hospitality of this country towards Italian exiles "from Giordano Bruno to Mazzini," and declared that "Gladstone did more for Italy than a victorious army."

* * *

A DEFINITE step has at length been taken towards a settlement of the Mesopotamian question. Turkey has approached this country with an invitation to negotiate, and it is believed in Paris that Sir Edward Grey has invited France to participate in the discussion. It is unlikely that Turkey would take this step save after some consultation with Germany. There is, apparently, some prospect of an arrangement on the basis that the section of the railway from Bagdad to the Persian Gulf should be controlled to the extent of forty or forty-five per cent. each by Great Britain and Germany, with Turkey as the third partner. France is anxious that her Syrian railway projects should be considered at the same time, and suggests that aid should be offered to Turkey to complete her European system. Meanwhile, an article in the "Times" from its veteran Balkan correspondent, Mr. Bourchier, confirms the worst we have heard of the recent atrocities during the disarmament of Macedonia. It is true that Bulgarian reprisals have recently aggravated the position, and they cannot be too strongly censured. But the first steps in the policy of persecution were undoubtedly taken by the Turks.

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IT seemed at first as though the action of the Government in taking private members' time up to Easter would frustrate the intention of woman suffragists of claiming, in this session, the facilities which the Prime Minister has promised for some session of this Parliament. An unprecedented stroke of luck, however, placed no fewer than three members of the Conciliation Committee consecutively at the head of the ballot for the remaining days after Easter. Sir George Kemp will move the second reading of the Bill on May 5th. Its title is now general, so that free amendment is possible, and the omission of the £10 occupancy qualification removes any reasonable fear of the creation of faggot votes.

* * *

WE are afraid the naval problem is not quite so simple as the "Westminster Gazette" would have us believe. It says that if we take the Dreadnought programmes of 1909, 1910, and 1911, we get the following Anglo-German results:—

Great Britain	8 + 5 + x
Germany	4 + 4 + 4

Therefore, it says, we have only to determine what value x shall have; and, as we stated in 1909 that Germany was building more ships and building them faster than in fact she is, we need not build so many this year. Quite so; and we hope this broad hint will be passed on to Mr. McKenna. But the "Westminster" does not state all the terms of the equation; perhaps it did not mean to state them. It is not merely a problem in numbers; it also is a problem in time and in strength. The Dreadnought did not come to birth in 1909. We had a fleet of seven Dreadnoughts before Germany possessed one such vessel; we build faster and better than Germany; and we are building far more powerful ships. Also, the value of x is moral as well as material. If it is a moderate number, Germany will have no excuse for exceeding her yearly tale of Dreadnoughts. That drops to two in 1912.

THE rebellion which President Diaz and his friends affected to despise, and claimed to have crushed, is evidently as vigorous as ever in the Northern provinces. The mines have ceased working, and both railways and telegraphs are cut. The rebels hold the mountains and appear to be able to sweep the plains whenever they please to descend. The country-folk are said to be on their side, and they are well armed. The Government forces have been compelled to concentrate, abandoning several of their principal positions. The rebels have succeeded in wrecking a train of reinforcements on their way to Ciudad Juarez, and are said to have killed 170 soldiers in the skirmish which followed. Some of the Regulars, under Colonel Rabago, managed to get into Juarez, which is now closely besieged. The rebel plan seems to be to establish a base in the North, and then gradually to work southwards. But it is a far cry from Chihuahua to Mexico City, and though there probably is widespread discontent throughout the whole Republic it is not, so far as we know, organised, and the relative success of the rebellion in the North is due apparently to the territorial influence of its leader.

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DR. HARNACK, the greatest living exponent of enlightened Christian doctrine, attended, on Monday, the inaugural meeting of the Associated Councils of Churches in England and Germany, whose object is the improvement of Anglo-German relations. The Archbishop of Canterbury, fresh from the launch of "The Thunderer," presided, and said that the object of the organisation was to permeate society with the spirit of brotherhood and love. Dr. Harnack's address, full of distinction of thought and phrasing, dwelt mainly on the civilising influence of the spirit of culture, applied to two peoples who shared a rich inheritance of poetry and speculation equally cherished by both. Dr. Harnack quoted many of the greater English lights—Shakespeare and Milton, the Puritans, Carlyle, Ruskin, and Wesley—as meaning as much to Germans as to Englishmen. Culture is no doubt a great unifying bond. But we fancy that the cement of democracy is needed to bind what religious and intellectual forces bring together.

* * *

THE new régime in the Belgian Congo is doing its best to disappoint the pessimists. The first Budget just presented to the Chamber shows a deficit of a quarter of a million sterling. It is not a large sum for a country which is, for its size, the richest corner of Europe. The reports from the Congo itself are almost incredibly favorable. So complete a change in so brief a period is as surprising as it is gratifying. Mr. Clark, an American missionary, who was outspoken in his comments of King Leopold's misrule, declares after a two months' journey through districts which used to be the worst, that he did not meet with a single abuse or hear a single complaint. The natives no longer fly from white men, and they are rebuilding their villages and resuming the cultivation of their fields. Labor is honestly paid for, and trading is genuinely free. The change, it is only fair to mention, had begun even before King Albert's accession. M. Vandervelde noted it in his singularly fair-minded book. But it is the annexation and the humane influence of King Albert which have completed the transformation. It now remains only to deal with the concessionaire companies.

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MR. JUSTICE GRANTHAM's latest escapade has been to revive the case of the Yarmouth Election petition, and, after four years of silence, to defend his improper language and his equally improper

judgment. On that occasion his proceedings were brought before the House of Commons, and he was saved from censure only by the very kindly speech of Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman. On Tuesday he made a long and incoherent defence of his conduct, in the course of his charge to the Grand Jury at Liverpool Assizes. He excused his disagreement with Mr. Justice Channell—a judge immeasurably superior to him in knowledge, intellect, and character—on the ground that his brother Judge was so ill that he could not "appreciate" the evidence or "conduct" the counsel. He declared that he had never been "wittingly" partisan; and denounced the late Prime Minister and Attorney-General, and the still-living Mr. Swift McNeill, for suggesting such a thing. On the following day the Prime Minister was appealed to, and said scathingly that the obligation of the judges to refrain from reflecting on the proceedings of the House had been "signally violated," and asked for time to deal with what was, "happily, a unique situation." We hope this means an end to Mr. Justice Grantham's tenure of the Bench. He has long been its greatest, though not its only, scandal, and not even the House of Lords can wish to retain him.

* * *

WE regret to announce the death of Lord Cawdor, in his sixty-fourth year. He was a public man with two careers, as a railway director and an administrative and oratorical statesman. In the first capacity he served as Chairman of the Great Western Railway, and was largely responsible for the development of the express traffic, and the opening out of the Fishguard route to Ireland. In the second, he bore, as First Lord of the Admiralty, some considerable share in the development of Lord Fisher's policy of concentrating the fleets, and in the initiation of the Dreadnought era. His estimates were high, and the new departures with which he was associated were vigorously rather than cautiously and wisely taken. He was a good speaker, clear in style, and combative in tone. His party trusted him, and he was a member, and by no means an unimportant member, of the Conference on the Veto.

* * *

WITH Piet Cronje, the first of the Boer generals distinguished in the war has been removed. He earned distinction by his easy success in compelling Dr. Jameson and his "raiders" to surrender at Krugersdorp. Afterwards, he stood at Kruger's side as one of the most intractable of the Old Guard on the Transvaal Executive; and, when the war broke out, he was appointed to maintain the blockades of Kimberley and Mafeking, and to oppose Lord Methuen's advance. By his defence of Modder River and his repulse of a misguided night attack on his lines at Magersfontein, he succeeded in these objects, until he allowed himself to be outflanked by French's dash to relieve Kimberley, and was forced to make for Bloemfontein, with a miscellaneous host of burghers, wagons, women, and children. Headed off on the way by French from Kimberley, he entrenched himself in the river bed at Paardeberg, and there endured a terrific bombardment for ten days. On February 27th, 1900, he surrendered with over 4,000 men, and six small guns. Delarey and others entreated him to leave, the Boer plan being to beset the British Army during its long march to Bloemfontein through an almost waterless country. Though not a great general (having no idea of strategy, beyond obstinate defence), he remained a notable type of the old-fashioned Boer, slow, stubborn, and fearless.

Politics and Affairs.

THE PLAIN PATH.

THOSE who hold the belief that the General Election of December has left things as they were may learn something by comparing the King's Speech of this week with the King's Speech of last February. We do not wish to revive old controversies, so we will merely remark that the speech now before us is devoid of ambiguities, and goes straight to the single point which has been the issue of the election and will be the issue of this session. It is the relation between the Houses that has to be settled. The lines of settlement have been before the public, in general outline since 1907, in detached resolutions of the House of Commons since last spring, and in the shape of the Parliament Bill during the last election. The Government's proposal has, at the moment, the highest authority which any measure of public policy can enjoy, the recent, the definite, and the repeated endorsement of the constituencies. This point is clearly taken by the wiser heads on the Unionist side, and so we see the "Times" giving prominence to a letter strongly setting forth the constitutional authorities on the situation. Their evidence, much of which we have often quoted in these columns, is, indeed, overwhelming. It attests the supreme force of public opinion when once it has attained a regular and persistent expression. All the acting authorities in the Constitution bow to that authority. It is the "open sesame" to the doors which seem locked to communities which lack our method and habit of resorting to conventions and understandings when formal machinery is not available. This reserve power has not failed us in the past; it will not fail us now. If it be not the duty of the Lords to yield to a repeated verdict of the constituencies as represented and expressed by a newly-elected House of Commons, then our Constitution, far from being a masterpiece of political wisdom, is a clumsy and ineffective instrument, that makes no provision for the contingency of a deadlock. It would be possible for the two Houses to be left facing one another with no way of deciding the controversy between them.

Fortunately, no such possibility of deadlock exists; first, because, under the Constitution, it is the clear duty of the House of Lords to yield to the newly-elected House of Commons on the point on which appeal has been made to the people; and, secondly, because if the Lords should after all fail in their duty, a method is prescribed by the form and spirit of the Constitution whereby their resistance can be overcome. The object of the Parliament Bill is to obviate the necessity of resort to any such method in the future, for it is a method too clumsy, under modern conditions, to be used more than once. But once is enough, and once, for the purpose of passing the Parliament Bill, recourse will undoubtedly be had, if necessary, to the wholesale creation of peers. There are doubtless reasons why this step should not actually be taken. But we must recognise that it would simplify the task of the Government during the life-time of the present Parliament, while it would greatly hamper reactionary measures on the

part of the Unionists if they should happen to regain power at the next election. For these reasons we fancy that the more cool-headed of our opponents see as clearly as we do that the inconveniences and drawbacks involved in the creation of peers would be felt far more severely by them than by us. It matters very little to us, who stand by the power and position of the Commons, if the social prestige of the peerage is lowered. It matters very little to us if its numbers are increased. As to its character, and average level of ability, we decline to think that they need be in the least degree lowered by the selection of 250 or 300 Liberals from among the millions in the country who profess that political faith. We neither rate the attainments of the average peer so high, nor those of the typical Liberal so low. We conceive that these considerations will be duly weighed by the advisers of the peers before they come to a decision, and we would recommend them, in the meanwhile, to accustom their minds thoroughly to the contemplation of one fixed point. It is the firm intention of the Government and the party to carry the Parliament Bill, and, whether the operation be difficult or easy, regrettable or desirable, it is equally their intention to carry it by the creation of peers—if it cannot be carried without. That is the governing factor of the situation, and preparations for dealing with further recalcitrance are being and will be made.

Having this fixed point clearly in mind, it is not, as we think, likely that the Lords will push matters to an extreme. But it is open to them to resort to embarrassing tactics. In the first place, they may throw out the Bill on the second reading. In that case, it may be necessary to prorogue Parliament, and to begin a new session in the early autumn, and, unless the assent of the peers is tacitly secured beforehand, it will be feasible to create peers before the Bill is brought in a second time. Thus the peers would not gain much from their tactics, and the Government would still be able to secure the Parliament Bill within the year, a point which must be held essential to its general plan of campaign. But, as an alternative, the House of Lords may very probably accept the second reading of the Bill, and seek to amend it in committee by coupling with it, on the strength of the preamble, provisions as to Reform or Referendum. They may elect to fight on this ground.

Here, again, the reply of the Government is clear. It is the Parliament Bill which has been put to the electorate and affirmed by the electorate. It is the relation between the Houses which has formed the staple of controversy and has been submitted to the decision of two General Elections. The Parliament Bill must be passed *sans phrase*. Further and consequential reforms of the Constitution may be desirable. They are open to debate and discussion. The Parliament Bill is no longer open to discussion. It has been discussed and ratified, and it remains only to get its ratification formally acknowledged and recorded. Furthermore, the principle contained in the Parliament Bill is that any consequential modifications of the Constitution should be open to the un-

fettered decision of the House of Commons, subject only to the conditions of discussion and delay which the Parliament Bill itself lays down. It is very desirable that in the delicate work of construction there should be perfect freedom of discussion among the representatives of the people. But there will not be freedom of discussion if the results have to be restricted to the hostile arbitration of the unrepresentative House. It is, in short, not for the House of Lords to reform itself, nor to veto considered schemes of its own reformation. It is a part of the principle of the Parliament Bill that in future the Second Chamber holds delegated power from the people, power to discuss and suspend temporarily the decision of the direct representatives of the people, and it is for the people's representatives to determine on the constitution and the composition of the Second Chamber, which is to be adapted to that purpose.

This is the logic of the postponement of the question of reform. It is deliberately intended to secure the last word in the constitutional re-settlement to the Commons, and through the Commons to the electorate. The reform of the House of Lords must not be a patch-work compromise which the present House of Lords would be ready to accept. That House, Lord Rosebery has assured us, is dead, and we may expect to hear him explain to his fellow peers that dead men make no bargains. Their estates are administered by others, whose duty it is to find the lawful heir and invest him with his rights and dignities. For if the House of Lords is dead, it died intestate. Its will was not signed. It was not even complete. Several drafts existed in the hand of Lord Lansdowne, Lord Rosebery, or others. None were signed, sealed, and delivered. The administrators of the intestate estate are the Commons of England, and when the death is certified by the passage of the Parliament Bill they will find the lawful heir. But first the certificate.

"A GREAT IMPERIAL DISASTER."

Two nations in North America, one of them a member of our Empire, have conspired together to bring about what Mr. Balfour has chosen to designate "a great Imperial disaster." Before considering the appropriateness of this language, as applied to the Reciprocity Agreement, we hasten to admit that Mr. Balfour affects to attach no blame either to Canada or the United States. He blames our Government for refusing "to listen to the long pleadings of Canadian statesmen, extending over these many decades." Now, were it true that Canadian statesmen had been "pleading" with us for so long, and if we had persistently turned a deaf ear to their entreaties, some plausibility might attach to Mr. Balfour's attribution of blame. But there is no tittle of truth in this representation of the case. Not merely has Canada never "pledged" for a return of the "preference" she accorded us, but over and over again her statesmen have expressly repudiated any such interpretation of that view; while the farmers, in whose interests the demand has been raised by protectionists upon this side of the water, have gone out of their way to disclaim any such desire. The "pleading" is a sheer invention

of Mr. Balfour and his friends. If any doubt upon the point lurked in the minds of our people, the straight and explicit statement of Mr. Fielding, the Canadian Minister responsible for the new agreement, must give it the *coup de grâce*. He points out that, so far from Canada entering a new policy out of resentment at being flouted in her demand for British preference, she is simply following what has been "the policy of all parties in Canada for generations." The trade relations with the United States have always been closer and more important than with any other country. Weakened for a time by strained political conditions, and a certain "touchiness" inherent in the situation, they are now resuming their normal and natural course. The rapid recent development of Canada has ripened the pace of that commercial *rapprochement* which has continually occupied the minds of statesmen in the two countries. "Canada," says Mr. Fielding, "is seeking markets everywhere for her surplus products, subsidising steamship lines, and sending out commercial agents. Would it not be ridiculous in her pursuit of such a policy to refuse to avail herself of the markets of the great nation lying alongside?"

But it would be otiose to argue once again the obvious advantages to both countries of such an arrangement. What concerns us more is the injury inflicted upon the good relations between Great Britain and her self-governing Colonies by the reckless charges in which Mr. Balfour indulges. We have pointed out that the blame for the "great Imperial disaster" cannot be lodged upon this Government, for the Canadians expressly exonerate us from any such charge. It must, therefore, recoil upon the Canadian Government, who are thus responsible for a betrayal of Imperial interests. So Mr. Balfour identified himself and his party with the Opposition in Canada, inciting them to obstruct the passing of the Reciprocity Bill, and to sacrifice the innumerable benefits, economic and political, that would accrue from a friendly co-operation with the great Republic. Merely formal disclaimers of this intention do not alter the fact. Is this Mr. Balfour's notion of sound Imperialism to intervene in Canadian party politics, with a charge, which Canadian Ministers naturally take to themselves, of bringing about "a great Imperial disaster"? English statesmen have sometimes been known to comment upon the manners of colonials who have not enjoyed the advantages of public school and University, or have not mixed in good "society." But Mr. Fielding displays both tact and dignity in his indirect reply to Mr. Balfour, reminding him that "in promoting friendly relations with the neighboring Republic we are doing the best possible service to the Empire."

For, so far as Imperial interests are concerned, it is of primary importance that each section of the Empire shall secure the fullest development of its natural and human resources, and in doing so shall live upon the most amicable terms with neighboring nations. From the economic standpoint, it is obvious that Canada, in exploiting her enormous natural wealth, must work in ever closer co-operation with the United States. In strengthening the bonds of this co-operation she does nothing to weaken those which bind her to the Mother

Country. There is no such antagonism as is pretended between healthy internationalism, alike in trade and in politics, and the maintenance of our Empire. On the contrary, the two movements are complementary. Mr. Austen Chamberlain actually makes an added grievance of the fact that in the new traffic, which will carry Canadian wheat and raw materials south across the frontier, the return freights will enable Canadians to get cheaper and fuller supplies of agricultural implements and other American manufactures. It is, indeed, admitted that if the arrangement goes through, it will do more to enrich Canada than the United States, though both will be substantial gainers. But will the Mother Country and the other portions of our Empire reap nothing from the enrichment of the Dominion with which they are in commercial intercourse? Mr. Balfour spoke as if the long historic policy of Canada and our other self-governing Colonies were in danger of some sudden new perversion from its natural and normal course. No such thing. The general course of history in each self-governing group during the last half-century and more has set steadily in the direction of fuller material independence, political, commercial, and even military. The formal attachment on each plane of action has been weakening. Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa have claimed, with a continually rising sense of nationality, to manage their own political and economic destiny themselves, unfettered by fixed agreements with the Mother Country or with one another.

This does not make for a separation or for a breaking-up of the Empire. It means the changing of the form and substance of that Empire from an originally close dynastic unity, with central control within these Isles, to a looser federation of free nations bound to one another by ties of blood, language, social intercourse, and the goodwill and natural amity bred of these connections. The idea of a handful of short-sighted "Imperialists"—save the mark—that the Empire can be strengthened by the iron clamps of a political or fiscal system, which at the same time shall sever its component parts from the close associations they had been forming in their several interests with friendly foreign States, is seen by experience to be a mischievous delusion. No such Imperial system is feasible, for as soon as it was reduced from high-sounding phrases to practical negotiations, it would be seen to involve for each Colonial nation a definite and dangerous abandonment of dearly-prized elements of liberty which it had long enjoyed. For such reasons the forthcoming Imperial Conference will not waste its time along the lines of impossible advance, but will, we hope, devote itself to the organisation of the many interests which community of races, common traditions of law and language, political and social institutions, and the whole elaborate structure of a common civilisation, leave for it to build upon, as the true foundations of the British Empire. To such an Empire the formation of new ties of economic interest and amity between Canada and the United States, so far from being "a great disaster," constitutes a new and potent source of strength, bringing into closer relations with the Canadian people, and, through her, with the Empire, that mighty and ever-

expanding nation whose active sympathy and co-operation are of incomparably greater value to us than those of any other community on the earth.

LIBERALISM, EXPENDITURE, AND DEFENCE.

THE powerful attacks of the "Economist" on the recent increases in expenditure, and the following remonstrances of the Liberal Press, will, we hope, concentrate the mind of the Government on larger aspects of national strength than the debates on the Navy Estimates have usually disclosed. If we were to take those discussions by themselves, we should have to conclude that the problem had been reduced to very simple proportions. It was merely an equation in Dreadnoughts. Such and such a weight of metal laid out on Dreadnoughts ensured safety; such and such a weight spelt "death and damnation." The country is beginning to realise that there are other factors in the account. States can be bled to death by taxes. They can be fatally mis-directed in policy and fact. Their statesmen can neglect the permanent sources of national vitality, and concentrate on the fanciful remedy of the hour. It is remarkable that a "business" community should be even temporarily oblivious of the importance of care and wisdom both in saving and in spending. What, for example, are the salient facts as to the growth in national expenditure? The estimated expenditure of the passing year is significant enough—it shows a leap of nearly fourteen millions beyond the preceding year. That is a startling fact; but it is only an incident in a regular march of events. The growth of expenditure has been progressive over a long period; it did not begin yesterday, it will not end to-morrow, and the Liberal Party threatens to make an even handsomer contribution to it than its rival. Moreover, the increase is both positive and relative. Thus, in the thirty years between 1857 and 1887, though the total increased from 68 millions to 87 millions, the expenditure per head of the population remained stationary. But in the twenty-three years from 1887 to 1910 it not only grew from 87 millions to 171 millions, but the sum taken from each inhabitant rose from £2 7s. 5d. to £3 5s. 4d. We set aside that portion of these enormous increments which is due to the larger demands of modern citizenship. Some of these increments may have been excessive; but in the main they represent a civilising and productive agency. What of the war services? It is significant that the period of their sensational growth dates from the South African war. The close of that war relieved the Empire from a weight of anxieties in Europe as well as in Africa, only to bind round its neck a tremendous new burden of war-like expenditure. Since 1899 the Army Estimates have risen by eight millions; the Navy Estimates by fifteen millions. On the Navy, the great period of expenditure has been Mr. McKenna's; within that term there has already been a rise from thirty-two millions to forty and a-half millions. We now envisage a further rise to forty-four or forty-five millions, with fifty millions and more for 1912. Greater and greater ships; more and more ships; a greater variety of all types of ships; a vast apparatus of new naval stations, docks, defences, rise up, in a time of profound

peace, to efface the old principles of Liberalism, and to image the alarms that statesmen foment and the people pay for.

Happily, the time has come both for a review of policy and for a halt in armaments. Since Wednesday night, we have had the Admiralty's confession of error. The "scare" Estimates of 1909 and 1910 are now admittedly based on bad information. Let us see what this withdrawal amounts to. In the course of the debates the following statements, among many others, were made to the House of Commons:—

That the four German Dreadnoughts of the 1908-9 programme would be completed in the autumn of 1910.—(Mr. McKenna.)

That the completing of the four German ships of the 1909-10 programme was being expedited.—(Mr. McKenna.)

That, therefore, Germany would have nine Dreadnoughts completed in 1910, thirteen in August, 1911, seventeen in April, 1912, and twenty-one in 1913.—(Mr. McKenna.)

That in April, 1912, the Germans would probably have twenty-one Dreadnoughts, or even twenty-five.—(Mr. Balfour.)

That in 1909 Italy had a definite programme of four Dreadnoughts, one of which had been laid down, while a second was to be laid down immediately, and the remaining two were to be laid down in that year.—(Mr. McKenna.)

That the Austrian programme of four battleships—like the Italian programme—was "an actual reality."—(Mr. McKenna.)

The entire fabric of these alarms has now been blown into the air. On Wednesday Mr. McKenna admitted, in reply to Mr. Robert Harcourt, that the four German Dreadnoughts of the 1908-9 programme were *not* completed; that the four further ships of the 1909-10 programme would *not* be finished this year, and that only one of them had even been launched; that the vessels of the 1910-11 programme would *not* even be "delivered" from the German shipyards before the spring of 1913, and, finally, that the last quartette of German Dreadnoughts would only be "delivered" in 1914. Thus the fable of secret German acceleration and construction, on which our own scheme of Dreadnought building for two years has been built, falls to the ground. Its worthlessness, indeed, has already been attested by the proposed diversion of the two Colonial Dreadnoughts from these shores, which they were designed to guard in our hour of peril, to their distant Imperial ports. Not less complete is the destruction of the theory of an Austro-Italian epidemic of Dreadnought building, which Mr. McKenna antedated by at least two years, and which, in any case, does not concern the rivalry of the North Sea, but of the Adriatic. We do not even know whether Dreadnought-building is not already on the wane; certainly it is not being rushed. But all the facts might have been set out in their due proportion if the explicit statements and repudiations of the German Admiralty had been accepted. They were treated as idle breath, and the nation, plunging from one panic into another, has seen

the whole naval situation in the red light of invasion and the coming dethronement of its sea-power. Two years ago we were told that German prowess in warship-building would just leave us, in the critical year, 1912, with a margin of three Dreadnoughts. The margin will be about two to one in numbers, far more than two to one in strength.

On its own showing, therefore, the Admiralty has over-built. It now owes the country a corresponding economy. It cannot call on us to resume what Professor Harnack called a state of "latent war," to which there is no pause by way of an armistice, and no end by way of a treaty of peace. Under this burden the Liberal Party has for two years sat crushed and intimidated; the Ministry held up year after year by the Admiralty with swollen estimates based on false information, and enforced less by the party in power than by the Opposition. Thus far have we been led by the terrible errors of 1909, acknowledged, as they are, by every expert who has written on the question, and now by the Minister responsible for them. To what further disaster do they summon us? To the dissipation of the splendid heritage of the Budget of 1909, to the imposition of fresh and unpopular taxation, to war with Germany, and an ensuing division and distraction of the Liberal Party far more complete and irrevocable than that which followed upon the South African war? All these calamities threaten us if Liberal statesmanship fails to regain the grip of the situation which it lost in 1909.

To avert this misfortune two efforts are necessary. The first is a re-assertion of the control of expenditure by the Executive and by the House of Commons. Those who have followed this controversy know that both these functions have lapsed. The Treasury does not to-day exercise its old peremptory power of revising the estimates of the spending departments, and since the fatal step was taken of procuring the signatures and formal approval of permanent officials to the estimates issued by the two services, these gentlemen, who do not appear in Parliament and cannot be criticised by it, have usurped the office of the statesmen responsible to the House of Commons. It is no longer a question of the Prime Minister assigning a sum to the services, with the intimation that it has been adjudged to be adequate on considered grounds of policy and defence. The estimates become now the estimates of Generals and Admirals, presented as pistols at the head of a Liberal Administration. Unless the power over the purse is reconquered, Parliament will have lost its greatest function, and must reorganise the defence of its authority against a too weak Executive, as well as a too strong official hierarchy. The Admirals must come into the open, and be cross-examined, on such grounds as those which Mr. Arnold Hills alleges against the Board of Admiralty, as well as on the larger matters of naval policy. If it be true, as Mr. Hills says it is true, that under the present system of contracts ten millions of pounds have been wasted in ten years on inferior and over-costly types of battleships, Mr. McKenna will have to answer a case not less serious (it could not be more serious) than his

admitted mis-direction of the House of Commons. In one way or another the representative system and responsible government must be restored to their old efficiency.

But naval strength is only the materialisation of national policy. If it be untrue, as it is now proved to be untrue, that Germany was, in 1909, planning a stealthy clutch at our seapower, it is clear that the problem of Anglo-German relationships is reduced to something like its old compass, and that we can measure with calmness the indirect and distant interests which bring the two communities in conflict. Our statesmen insist on the importance of improving the Anglo-German "atmosphere" before we proceed to negotiate instruments of policy. Well, the "atmosphere" is much improved. It has been cleared of a good deal of fiction, to begin with. But it cannot be thoroughly sweetened so long as excessive naval estimates and unnecessary Dreadnoughts drive the two countries to lay a continually increasing burden on each other and on the world. We set the standard of that competition; the more we build the more the other Powers build. But Germany can also force the pace, until even our great financial and political reserves begin to totter, and the country, tired of endless and useless sacrifices, is teased or scared into war. Is 1911 to see a change?

THE VALUE OF THE "ENTENTE CORDIALE."

A DUEL between a newspaper and a Foreign Office is no longer a rare spectacle in the modern world. It is, in France, an episode which has constantly led to the making of diplomatic history. When the "*Temps*" sets out to campaign against M. Pichon, one cannot but recall that in recent times the writing of leading articles has become the recognised training for the writing of despatches. MM. Hanotaux and Delcassé were both of them journalists, and even M. Pichon has served his apprenticeship. It is this tradition which lends its peculiar force to the attack which is now proceeding, and explains the care and the frankness with which the threatened Minister has answered his critic. Every French leader-writer has the seals of office somewhere in the drawer of his desk, as Napoleon's corporals carried the bâton of a field-marshall in their knapsacks. The attacks come from one of the most forcible pens and one of the best-equipped brains in France, and when the "*Temps*" impeaches M. Pichon, the well-informed French reader begins to ask himself whether M. Tardieu, a diplomatist by training, a journalist by choice, might not perhaps fill the post of a somewhat mediocre Minister with more credit to the service and more profit to France.

The merits of the dispute very nearly concern us. It is the burden of M. Tardieu's case that the Triple Entente has of late years lost all practical value. It subsists, of course. In international relations there is rarely an abrupt transition. One no more abandons an ally at once than one cuts an intimate friend. One forgets to meet him. One omits to ask him to dinner. One finds it unnecessary to seek his advice. The whole ceremonial side of the Entente is intact. It figures in Kings' speeches, and Royal toasts, and

Ministerial discourses. But it has ceased to be an instrument in use. The facts are tolerably obvious. The Bosnian crisis was the crucial test. It exposed the military weakness of Russia, the inability of Great Britain to take an effective part in any purely Continental struggle, and the reluctance of France to back her ally effectively in any policy of adventure. The recent *rapprochement* of Russia to Germany marks her sense of the necessary readjustment. The failure or inertia of British and French policy in Turkish affairs, alike during the recent financial crisis and in the pending Russo-German negotiations over the Bagdad railway, is no less patent. France and Great Britain no doubt are in perfect accord in Turkish matters; they are agreed in doing nothing. Yet the Eastern Question is now the centre of European affairs, and the Bagdad Railway is the key to the Eastern Question. How far has the re-arrangement proceeded? One is tempted at moments to suppose that the intimacy of Germany with Russia is even closer than her intimacy with Austria. The meaning of the abandonment by Russia of the forts along her eastern frontier can hardly be disputed. It means, however it may be disguised, her entry into a relation of confidence with Germany which leaves little reality to the Dual Alliance.

It is rather a complex phenomenon which M. Pichon's critics are discussing as a single problem. The reasons which make for intimacy between Russia and France are not necessarily the reasons which ought to govern or do govern Franco-British friendship. We detect in his reasoning the underlying assumption that the only possible tie between these three Powers is a common fear of Germany, or a common desire to counter-work her. If that were the motive, it could only lead to disaster. The Triple Entente has never been a match on land for the Triple Alliance, and never could be. The partial defection of Russia means the frank recognition of that fact. The real tie between Paris and St. Petersburg has always been financial, and that tie holds. France is the weak lender, who cannot afford to trifle with a reckless debtor. That bond will survive, but it in no way concerns us, and it still may hold when the Alliance has been almost forgotten among later re-insurances. As little can the suspicion of Germany, which has served as the unavowed basis of our policy, make a permanent bond with France. We hope that we shall one day seek for an arrangement and an appeasement, and we ought not to wish to pay, as the price of better relations with Germany, any loss in the extreme cordiality of our understanding with France. Our closest ties, alike of interest and sentiment, are with the French, and it will be a bad day for Liberal ideals in both countries if they are ever weakened. For our part we are convinced that the real European problems of the present and the future centre in the Near East, as certainly as they did in the generation between the Crimean War and the occupation of Egypt. Here British and French interests—and we may add Italian—if not quite identical, are at least harmonious. Both Powers are committed to maintain the integrity of Turkey while the new *régime* contains (as it still does) any element of promise. Both are pledged to the open door, and both have a primary interest in watching,

for the sake of their own trade and of Turkish liberty, the development of the new routes which are destined to transform Syria and Mesopotamia. An arrangement here is possible with Turkey and with Germany, and we hope that it is not far distant. But in such an arrangement French and British diplomacy, which has hitherto failed in its work rather because of the weakness of its agents in Constantinople than from any lack of cordiality, must work in perfect confidence. Russian interests, on the other hand, are widely divergent, and we doubt whether any Russian Minister will ever frankly adopt a policy of friendship towards any Turkish Government that has in it the promise of strength and progress. Russia has never been friendly to Turkey save in the intervals when she could by an affected friendship assist the process of internal decay.

The dispute between M. Pichon and the "Temps" has served to bring about at least one valuable revelation. We have often argued in these columns, by patching together indications and semi-admissions, that a secret military convention does bind us to France, if not to Russia. In his answer to the "Temps," M. Pichon, anxious to demonstrate the continued reality of the *entente cordiale*, let slip the illuminating sentence: "The military conversations with England continue." M. Tardieu, commenting on this defence with a fulness of knowledge which no other journalist in Europe can rival, remarked in effect: "The less said about these conversations the better. M. Clemenceau was the last Prime Minister who attempted to make anything of them." In other words, there is a relationship that approximates to a defensive alliance. It still, in name, subsists; and, up to the fall of M. Clemenceau in 1909, it was a reality. It is quite a secondary question whether a written convention exists. There are, or have been, "conversations" which looked towards joint action in certain events, and prepared for it by a mutual adjustment of plans. Such an admission cannot be misunderstood. When our Ministers come before Parliament with plans and estimates based, apparently, on a purely British view of our problem of defence, the real fact is that the schemes which they defend by one set of arguments have been elaborated in concert with the French authorities from quite another point of view. Secret diplomacy has led inevitably to disingenuous armaments. The whole basis of such a position is anti-democratic and anti-Liberal. If a convention with France exists—and, oral or written, it clearly does exist—the House of Commons, if it has any regard for its rights in the control of policy, should press for knowledge of the facts.

CANADA AND WHEAT PRICES.

WERE we on the eve of a General Election, the Government would be confronted everywhere with placards of the Free-Trade loaf made dear by Canadian reciprocity with the United States. Mr. Austen Chamberlain, with an assurance worthy of the forlorn hope he champions, spoke last Saturday of the price of bread rising "not by farthings, but by halfpence or by pence" as the result of the American arrangement. The economic

reasoning which supports this notion is simple, and singularly shallow. Great Britain draws a large share of the wheat she needs to feed her population from Canada. The result of the new American arrangement will be to divert a large part of this supply into the United States. The total supply of wheat coming to our shores from over-seas being thus reduced, the price to our consumers rises "not by farthings, but by halfpence and by pence."

Now, the fundamental fallacy underlying this argument is the contention that our available wheat supply will necessarily be reduced in size by free-trade in wheat on the American continent. There has always been some flow of wheat across the Canadian frontier, to and fro, to meet the needs of localities on either side, and to produce favorable blends for milling. In certain years this flow into the States has assumed large dimensions, amounting, for example, in 1905, to three million bushels as compared with eleven and a-quarter sent to this country. Canada, too, imports wheat, drawing no less than eleven and a-half million bushels from other countries last year, three-quarters of it from the United States. This reciprocal aid, hitherto given under difficulties, now attains ease and freedom. There will be a larger interchange of wheat across the frontier. Why should this convenience of American and Canadian millers and consumers raise the price of the British loaf? Those who argue that it must make several unwarrantable assumptions. They first assume that no wheat will continue to come from the United States into this country. Now, if the chief effect of free wheat in the new arrangement is to stimulate the flow of Canadian wheat into the United States, it is certain that a larger quantity of American wheat will find its way to European markets than would otherwise have been the case. It is no doubt true that, as the American population approaches a hundred millions, there will no longer, in ordinary years, be any net surplus of wheat for export. But, even in that case, it is unlikely that the withdrawal of the frontier duty would appreciably affect the supply. For, in any event, America would have supplemented her home needs from Canada or Argentina. The real effect of the removal of duties is that Americans and Canadians, who need the foreign wheat, get it cheaper than before. This assumption that "the consumer pays," essential to establish Mr. Chamberlain's complaint, is made in protectionist quarters here with an absolute indifference to the havoc which it plays with their first principle of taxation.

Granting that Americans get their wheat slightly cheaper than they would have done, does it follow that we must get ours dearer? Only on two assumptions, first that Americans will largely increase their consumption, secondly, that, since the total supply will remain the same, our share of the world-supply will be diminished. But neither assumption is warranted. No considerable class of American consumer is so restricted in food supply that a slight fall of price will stimulate a corresponding increase of demand. Slightly cheaper wheat will not mean a corresponding increase of consumption of wheat, but an increased expenditure on other articles. But even if the fall in price, or the modification of a

rise of price, did cause the people of the States to consume rather more wheat than they would otherwise have done, it does not follow that our supply would be correspondingly restricted. The effect of Canadian-American protection has been to cause some wheat to be grown on worse land in the States, instead of being grown on better land in Canada. The correction of this error will mean an improved "economy" in the growing and carriage of the wheat supply of North America as a whole. This cheapening of wheat production and transport, with the increased security of markets and increased stability of prices it involves, will have a general stimulating influence upon the opening up of wheat lands in the North West. There will result an increase in the aggregate output of wheat in North America; and, even though the United States should take a slightly larger share of it than she would otherwise have done, the surplus available for European markets will not be diminished but increased. In a word, though an improved economy of wheat-growing in North America is advantageous to the United States, it is also advantageous to Canada and to Great Britain, as, indeed, to all countries in commercial relations with North America. This is the familiar doctrine of Free Trade, good for this as for every other case.

A concluding word may be addressed to the contention that the Canadian arrangement destroys the possibility of making the Empire self-sufficing for its food supply. There never has been any speciousness in the idea for those who faced facts. Canada is furnishing a growing share of the wheat we want. But neither now nor in any possible future could we safely make ourselves dependent upon her surplus, even when reinforced by India and Australia, the two other large Imperial sources of supply. We cannot dispense with, cannot safely loosen our hold upon, the great non-Imperial supplies. Last year Russia, not Canada, was by far our largest source of supply; in 1909 it was Argentina, not Canada. In 1905, out of a total overseas supply of ninety-seven million cwts. of wheat, Canada only sent a little over six and a-half millions. The following statistics will suffice to make completely manifest the folly of any reduction in the number and variety of our sources of supply:—

WHEAT IMPORTED INTO GREAT BRITAIN.

	Total Foreign.	Total Imperial.	Canada.
	000 cwt.	000 cwt.	000 cwt.
1905	... 57,792	... 39,831	... 6,618
1906	... 61,220	... 31,747	... 11,246
1907	... 57,314	... 39,854	... 13,221
1908	... 66,861	... 24,270	... 15,797
1909	... 56,204	... 41,650	... 16,616

As was to be expected, the smallest quantity of fluctuation is in the foreign supply, drawn as it is from the largest number and variety of lands. The Imperial supply is much less reliable, though countries so distant as India, Australia, and Canada in some measure compensate one another's defects. Any one Imperial source is, of course, much more precarious. Therefore, however great the wheat-growing capacity of Canada might become, this country could never rely upon her, exclusively or even mainly, for her supply of bread.

Life and Letters.

KINDS OF COWARDICE.

EVEN epitaphs hesitate now, and tombstones are silent with uncertainty. No quality is assured, no character continuous, and, if we probe into the depths of personality lying beneath an outward reputation, we never know against what strange contradictions our instruments may strike. "A faithful husband, an excellent father, a true friend, a generous patron to the poor"—in the eighteenth century it was so easy and natural thus to inscribe the summary of a soul. With like assurance the historians have branded their villains for ever as monsters of lust and cruelty, treacherous to friends, and cowards in presence of the foe. We no longer venture thus to divide sheep from goats, and, by a string of constant epithets, to forestall the Judgment. We think it probable that the faithful husband supported his fidelity with interludes, that the excellent father sometimes bullied and was usually careless, that the traitor once was loyal, that Nero saw gleams of piety, and that tyrants have withered with longing for the virtue they have lost.

All qualities are uncertain; they come and go. In our estimation of character we only strike a convenient average; we put on it a face value as a current coin, a medium of exchange. It is a shorthand note, a label, a ticket, the price at a sale of great reductions. We use it only as a counter. No one would recognise himself in his friend's description, nor accept even praise without the protest of an infinite spirit against such limitation. From the abyss of self we never know what ogre or what angel may emerge. And while this is true of all the qualities that make up character, it is especially true of courage and its opposite. Let no one reckon beforehand on his behavior in the moment of peril. Not even with chastity does nature play such tricks as with courage; the hero of one moment may be the coward of the next, or the coward may in a flash become the hero. Trying to discover why Cardigan did not gallop his brigade to the relief of Scarlett's "Heavies" at Balaclava, Kinglake observed that the hesitation could not have arisen from cowardice, for almost immediately afterwards Cardigan himself led the celebrated charge. We do not know why he hesitated; very likely it had nothing to do with fear; but Kinglake's argument is valueless. The heart that burns with courage may flicker for one minute, and by that minute it may be doomed; or it may blaze again, and no one notice how nearly it went out. Perhaps the reason is that courage is more intimately involved with the bodily state than some other qualities, though all are involved. In certain natures it may depend on the digestion, on the circulation, or the weather. In nearly all it depends on the time of day, for, as is proverbially known, few can count on it at four in the morning. Into others, again, it may be instilled as a liquid, and become incarnate under the nickname of "Dutch."

For a full week a law court was lately occupied in a decision upon this most fugitive of virtues. It was the case of an old soldier who had seen long and arduous service in a cavalry regiment, had been promoted to the highest rank of non-commissioned officer, had left the army with a discharge specially commanding him as "steady and trustworthy," had of his own accord offered his services again at the first moment of our country's need, had served at the front for six months with entire credit, being present at thirteen engagements, and was evidently regarded as a brave and capable soldier, fit to take command in the absence of commissioned officers—the kind of man, in fact, to whom officers are accustomed to look for support and advice in moments of difficulty. One might have supposed that he, if any man, could have counted on his courage. Long years of discipline, habit, experience of danger, good physique, and his own high position, all went to strengthen it. The traditions of a gallant army supported it; the sense of shame in the presence of comrades and inferiors in

rank supported it, and yet in a moment of crisis it seemed to fail. At least, after a prolonged trial, a special jury has decided that it failed.

It is true that the jury had great difficulty in coming to a decision, and we do not wonder they hesitated. The evidence was unusually contradictory, and nearly all of it depended upon memories of an excited hour more than ten years ago. The man's record and character appeared to preclude all suspicion of cowardice. We do not imply that his character was the ideal British soldier's. We can imagine him rather a trial to his officers, even though he says he used to write their essays for them. We can imagine him a little cantankerous in barracks, and perhaps "too clever by half." But that he rose to so high a position proves that his other soldierly qualities, such as courage, must have compensated for his defects, and we must not judge his previous career by his outbursts of indignation and baffled rage during the long years when he suffered under what he considered an intolerable wrong. Still, in spite of all that could be said in his favor, the special jury, after long hesitation, did at last decide that this brave man became a coward at one moment of crisis.

He had slept on the open veldt in bitter cold after a tedious and uncertain march far into the night. At the first dawn, when vitality is lowest, left almost alone, without orders, puzzled by the half light, ignorant of the situation, and exposed to heavy fire from the rear (always the most alarming danger to any soldier), perceiving that the whole column had been decoyed into a trap, he was overcome with the fear of death. As Mr. Justice Phillimore said, the suggestion was not that Mr. Edmondson was a coward before the war, or was generally a coward, but that on a particular occasion he was guilty of cowardice. That was the suggestion the jury ultimately confirmed, and, if their decision was justified, we have here only another case of the incident familiar to all soldiers—the sudden and probably brief collapse of a brave man in a moment of unexpected danger. We have one more instance of the uncertainty of courage, and of the trembling balance on which even a brave man's courage and cowardice may hang. The worst of it is that a moment's collapse may bring disgrace on the whole of a courageous life, and if a jury calls one act cowardice, people who have never known danger will call the man a coward.

But there are other kinds of courage and cowardice than are seen on the field. In this trial we find what the Judge called "fringes," that were not relevant to the particular and private issue, but were very relevant and very central in the public interest. The private issue lay between Mr. Edmondson and Mr. Amery; the public issue lay between the nation and the War Office, and, unhappily, it remains unsettled. The chief question on which that issue turns is, Why did the War Office, through Sir Edward Ward, refuse to produce a document of vital importance to the case? The written report of the Lilliefontein affair, signed by Mr. Edmondson, and laid by him before Colonel Sitwell on the very day of his supposed offence, lies in the War Office; it was called for by the counsel on both sides, Mr. F. E. Smith remarking: "What was important was the tale the plaintiff told when he came face to face with Colonel Sitwell"—that is to say, the very document which the War Office holds. The Judge urged upon the War Office representative that the affair of Lilliefontein had now reached the historic stage, the war being well over; and still Sir Edward Ward, of course following instructions, refused to produce the document. "I do not consider, in the interest of the public service, that it is desirable to produce it," he is reported to have said. After the law had been inquired into, and precedents quoted, the Judge was compelled to support the refusal:

"The war, thank goodness, was now long over," he is reported to have said, "but it was not so long ago but that eminent officers who might have been in subordinate positions might be affected by the statements in the document. That being so, it might be against the interest of the public service that a kind of inquiry should be made into their conduct. He was sorry, because it was always the instinct of a Judge to have all the materials possible laid before the jury, but

having regard to the rules of law, and taking into consideration questions of public policy and of the public service, he thought that Sir Edward Ward had brought himself within the rule which entitled him to refuse to produce the document."

We do not dispute the point of law or the Judge's ruling. What we do dispute is the wisdom and courage of the War Office in withholding the evidence. The report of Colonel Grenfell, the officer commanding at Lilliefontein, and the account of the brief Court of Inquiry, held by a colonel and two subalterns at Kroonstad, were withheld in like manner. We suppose the War Office has its reasons, but we cannot imagine any probable reasons that could counterbalance the evil effect of such refusals. From the beginning, an air of mystery and concealment has hung over the treatment of Mr. Edmondson. He was kept under arrest though no charge was made, no "crime" specified, and the officers to whom he applied could give him no information. Again and again he appealed for a Court Martial, and none was granted. As Mr. Healy said in his final speech:

"Without charge or accusation made, without trial after his long imprisonment, extending over months, the plaintiff had been paraded in front of his company and, like another Dreyfus, the stripes had been torn from his regiments. That had been done when no crime had been alleged against him, and when no hearing of a judicial nature had been accorded to him. The plaintiff resented this treatment."

We do not wonder he resented it, and public feeling will resent it, all the more when it is continued in the concealment of vital evidence where the honor of an old soldier is concerned. If, as the Judge suggested, the document containing this evidence is concealed because eminent officers might be affected by the statements in it, the War Office is displaying a kind of cowardice at least as harmful as cowardice on the field. We gather from other evidence in the trial that the worst charges to which eminent officers might possibly be exposed by the document would be charges of tactical carelessness or neglect—especially neglect to post pickets on the rear of a flying column. Such charges would not be very serious at any time. After ten years they would be entirely forgotten. They would be nothing at all in comparison with the charges that Mr. Amery brought in his history—justly we think—in varying degrees against the senior officers during the same war—charges of slowness and irresolution, the absence of any real fighting instinct, the fear of bold, far-reaching decision, the dread of losses, and so on. If the War Office dare not expose one or two officers to such charges as Mr. Edmondson may possibly have brought in his statement to Colonel Sitwell, we can only say that either it shows very little moral courage itself, or that it takes far too low an estimate of the good feeling among officers, who, we are convinced, would rather have risked a certain amount of blame than have allowed the chief evidence as to the honor or dishonor of a former comrade-in-arms to be suppressed.

To the particular case all this may be a "fringe"; but to the country it is the centre. It reminds us of the Osborne Petition of Right last summer, when the Admiralty was compelled at last to admit the innocence of George Archer-Shee, shamefully condemned for a crime he had never committed. As the War Office now pleads "the interests of the public service" in excuse for its policy of concealment, so on that occasion Mr. McKenna "reminded the House that private rights and interests had often to be sacrificed to the public good." In both cases we see the tendency of bureaucrats to support officials and routine, to resist all criticism, and to follow the line of laziness or cowardice under the pretext of loyalty or the public service. Yet there is no such public service as the maintenance of public honor above suspicion, and loyalty to justice is more valuable than loyalty to an office, or even to a fellow-officer.

ON CUTTING BOOKS.

It was to be foreseen that this age of mechanical innovation would remain unsatisfied while any habit of leisure and serenity lingered in our libraries. Not much was left intact. We print by steam. We set our type by an ingenious contrivance which baulks the

eye of the last pleasure of the compositor's art, and marshals the letters in a line with a uniformed and soldierly rigidity. But one relic there still survived from the days when men read their books by lamp-light over a fire of logs. The greater number of our books still come from the press with their pages uncut. Printed by steam, bound by machinery, written in haste, and advertised with patent medicines and motor-cars, they still require of us some handi-work, and put the curb of a wanton delay and a gracious dallying on the impatience of our eyes and the hurry of our minds. It could not last. The demand for this final economy of time was certain to come. The innovation had long since begun. The popular novel and the cheap reprint already enter the world naked and stark, with their edges filed smooth and their pages calling out for the touch of a hasty forefinger and the contemptuous glance of a quick eye. But, as yet, there had been no attempt to reduce this practice to a rule. Printers and publishers went their way. There was an older school which would not bend. But the demand for a uniform modernity has come from an unlooked-for quarter. It is the "Morning Post" which has given it house-room in its columns, as though to prove that, to the modern Tory, no institution is sacred and no tradition unbreakable. One asks in amazement whether any test or shibboleth be left. We have a friend, an advocate of lost causes and struggling nations, the comrade of Arabi and Michael Davitt, a rebel, a fighter, and even a Home Ruler, who gained admission to the Carlton Club by declaring his readiness to uphold the Game Laws. We should have supposed, until the "Times" turned publisher and the "Post" declared for this paper revolution, that a man might have passed the portals of that Club by professing his preference for uncut pages. But there is worse treason yet. The name which signs this imperious call for the modernisation of books suggests Oxford in this generation and Canterbury in the last, Shakespeare in one incarnation and the monastic life in another. Mr. A. C. Benson has turned his back on the reputation of a leisured scholar, voiced the cry of the busy man, and come forward as the advocate of reading in a hurry. He is bold enough to advise a boycott of books with uncut edges, and confesses without shame to reading in haste. "If gold should rust, then what shall iron do?" When the authors and the dons call for machine-cut books, is there left any defender of our leisures and our privacies?

Mr. Benson's demand is a treason to the world of letters, but his reason is worse than his demand. If the saving of time is to rule the production of books, we have a suggestion or two for which we claim a merit superior even to this of Mr. Benson's. Let us, by all means, be practical and clear-headed. If Mr. Benson were a gentleman of leisure, there is a little Socratic conversation to which we should like to invite him. We can see the conversation stretching its rambling length in front of us.

Socrates: Pray tell me, Bensonides, when a man is in a hurry, is it because he has other things to do?

Bensonides: Truly, Socrates, you know that as well as I do. He may be a juryman, or maybe he must take his seat for pay in the Assembly, or perhaps he is producing a play, and he must find masks for the actors, and dresses for the chorus. He has many things to do besides reading books.

Socrates: What shall we say, then, does a man prefer to do other things because they are worse things or because they are better?

Bensonides: Nay, Socrates, how can I tell? Some men prefer flute-playing to reading.

Socrates: I will ask and you shall answer. If a man prefers flute-playing to wrestling, is it because he thinks it better?

Bensonides: Surely, Socrates, it is.

Socrates: And if he prefers listening to the orators in the law courts to racing in chariots?

Bensonides: By all means.

Socrates: And what shall we say if a man prefers other things to reading?

Bensonides: I suppose, Socrates, we must say that it is because he thinks the other things better than reading?

Socrates: We said just now that if a man is in a hurry it is because he has other things to do.

Bensonides: Truly, Socrates, other and better things.

But we were forgetting Mr. Benson is in a hurry. We must curtail the dialogue. It heads straight to an admission which would make very short work of many things that are left in the world and in Oxford. If we are going to save time at all costs, there is comparatively little which we could honestly urge in defence (for example) of Mr. Benson's own distinctive style. One may save ten minutes by shaving the edges of his pages, but we could save several hours by clipping his periods, and abbreviating his digressions. A blue pencil is a more potent weapon than any binder's knife. But the art of saving time has been studied by professors even more competent than Mr. Benson. There are smart young men in Chicago who would deal with one of his novels as the machines deal with the pig. It would go in a novel and come out a headline. Three lines of clear black capital letters would convey his essential thought. Ten more lines of small black letters would appeal to the slightly less hurried reader. The Wall Street man would imbibe the novel in three lines. His clerks might read the summary. The unemployed (with the help of a heading or two across each paragraph) might care to read the novel itself. When one sets out to save time there are no necessary limits to the process.

For our part, we can see in this proposal to shear the edges of books only a threat to one of the chief of the joys of reading. Your lamp is lit on a winter evening. Your fire burns brightly. Up the valley the wheel of the old mill is dipping idly in the hurrying water, and you know as you hear it that it turns no stone. The grain lies in the lofts, the door is barred, and the miller's dog barks in the stillness of the night as some laborer slouches homeward. Your cat has settled by the fire with her paws upon the fender in an attitude of devotion. Behind you, the grandfather clock ticks solemnly. But your thoughts are not of time. The hands turn on the dial, but you heed them no more than the ineffective mill-wheel. The ticking of the clock blends with the purring of the cat, and all the sounds persuade of leisure. Your book is on your knees, and you insert your knife between its pages with a curious anticipation of the pleasures which it will open to you. There is a secret in each four pages. The knife, with the curious arabesques upon its innocent and blunted steel, was once a weapon that had its place in the raw leather boot of a Cretan bravo. In what mountain skirmishes has it not figured! It may have sent Turks to paradise and brigands to an early justice. But to you it opens the shy secrets of the printed thought. You may stop and muse as you advance, a pioneer amid the outworks of the citadel. You have cut two pages, and you pause to relish the wealth that you still may plunder. What treasure lies between the next two pages? In due course, with appropriate ritual, that also you will despoil. But a hasty finger should not anticipate the discovery. In such a mood you will not wish to hasten your pleasure. Swift's philosophers appropriated the contents of a book by placing it against their foreheads. The man who desires to read by turning the pages aspires feebly to a method as summary. To read without cutting the pages is to gorge at a banquet without courses or pauses. It is to drink without toasts. It is to abolish the clinking of glasses. The leisured reader will pause before he joins with Mr. Benson in his boycott. But we should despair if the future of our libraries rested with him alone. This is a commercial age. But two classes of men there are who yet will rally to this losing cause. There is the publisher who sends out his books upon approval. He will not trust the honor of the hasty reader with a book whose pages have been cut. There is also the reviewer, who knows the market value of an uncut book when he sells it second-hand.

THE EARLY MARKET.

THERE are tender sticks of asparagus at Covent Garden, and French beans of a very delicate green. Only ounces where, in a few weeks, there will be tons, every separate growth of such value that you would think each must be entered in a book under its own name. The first fruits of the earth offered up, if the truth must be told, to the shrine of Mammon, with a keen eye to sequent blessing to the worshipper. They are far more precious than the oranges and bananas that the ships bring in such quantities from other climes that they are cheaper than our own apples. These tender greenlings belong to our own clime, pioneers many files ahead of robuster growths of the same kind that will bless even the moorland cottager when Thermidor comes. Capricious nature, aided more and more by man, grows them in seams and pockets of her own all among the snowfields and the dead and bitter wastes that belong to the temperate climes during the absence of the sun. Some of them are from no further south than Devonshire, some may grow within a league of London, and some even two hundred miles north, in the right sunny valley near the warm western sea that laves North Wales. Others, again, lie in a valley in the neighborhood of Hyères, where the landlords reap a rich harvest of rents, and the tenants, we hope, get a little back. The clever prospector could, if our land laws allowed, find many a streak of early soil that would make these bundles of very early vegetables a good deal less exiguous than they are.

Anyone who knows the fields and woods among which he lives can tell where, with great regularity, the first snow-drop comes up, the ferns first unfold, the sap first runs into beach or ash. Perhaps he can give reasons, more or less satisfactory, for the apparent bending of the isothermal line. Can he say, for example, why it is that the nettles present us so early with the young shoots, greatly valued by our ancestors before the cabbage was discovered? Is it because the nettle has an early habit, because its acid, like formic acid, is a force of growth, or because the nettle seizes the well-drained spots where the bacterial life wakes soon, after the drowning influence of winter? Possibly all three are important factors, but, since the nettle has gone out of favor as a table vegetable, the gardener has only as yet applied the last of them. The hedge-bank supplies us with an object-lesson in precocity that embraces many species and natural orders. Added to the drainage that belongs to a mound pierced with roots and the burrows of animals, are the protection of a slight wall, the warming of the air by the chemical action of the boughs, never entirely at rest, and the holding of warmth in the interstices of the twigs. Given the same downpouring of sunshine by day, the hedge and the near neighborhood of the hedge will hold it far longer than the open field, and will start the next day with a better balance in hand. So we see that not only in the hedge, but near the hedge and on both sides of it, the fool's parsley, hog-weed, ground ivy, cowslips, violets, bluebells, and all manner of things come up much earlier than the things in the field.

The lesson of the hedge has been partly learnt by the market gardener. In the neighborhood of Paris, hundreds of miles of walls have been built for the sheltering of early vegetables. The brick wall possesses in superior degree one of the virtues of the hedge—opposition to wind—but it is obviously inferior in the two other respects mentioned above. Hedges are used instead to some extent in the market gardens of Sussex, and many a Cornishman has raised a row of early potatoes on the lee side of a hedge, but, generally, the roots of such a living rampart have been found altogether too greedy and unmanageable in rich garden soil, even before the cheapening of glass put the device out of date. When land can be covered in glass for about sixpence the square foot, the man who has security of tenure and fixity of rent has very little inducement to cumber it with mere sheltering walls and hedges. A new influence, therefore, bends the isothermal line into contortions that have no relation to the impingement of the

sea, the annual average of sunshine, the shelter of mountains, or the nature of the soil. The right system of tenure on cold clay or barren sand will produce green peas by the mile, and French beans by the ton, long before even the blossoms appear on richer and better favored sites, where the tenancy is annual and arbitrary.

The early market in vegetables and flowers, as it is notoriously in fish, is an uncertain and even perilous quest. A week makes all the difference between the top price and one far below the top, between a due and an inadequate return on capital expenditure and annual labor. To take one example out of many; in the first week of the Jersey early potato crop the price is usually double, sometimes more than double, that of the third week. Moreover, the first week shows a marked tendency to become earlier every year. The first of February may have been an excellent market day for early asparagus last year, yet hopelessly out-of-date this year. The tiny quantities of the first gathering cannot be marketed to advantage without co-operation between the growers of the same district, and that is one of the reasons why districts become famous as market-gardening centres. The man who grows all of one crop may have chosen the wrong crop for the year. His only rule often is to grow that which was a glut in the market in the year gone by, but it is obvious that, if all work by the same rule, the same crop will be a drug again. The plan of several crops, aided by co-operative marketing, gives an average certainty as opposed to the speculation of the single venture.

We cannot wait for the rays of this year's sun, even though we have the magic of glass to catch them out of the wind, and hold them through the night. We dig up the bottled sunshine of many million years ago, and warm our greenhouses so that they give pineapples in wheat latitudes, and roses at Christmas. Kropotkin says that grapes in Brussels at the beginning of summer are not dearer than grapes in Switzerland in October. In the nature of things, grapes from Manchester or South Wales should be cheaper than grapes from Italy, though, no doubt, the second-hand sunshine does not ripen them with the same aroma as the direct rays. But now we have a purer form of derived sunshine than hot water or the direct heat of a coke fire. The electric discharge as a stimulant of vegetable growth has been proved economical even on a field scale, and for more than ten years they have been growing lettuces for Chicago under the artificial sun of an arc lamp. Only the heavy guerdon of the rich could have paid at first for these costly attempts to get earlier and earlier vegetables, fruits, and flowers; but the day seems even now close at hand when the products of hot-house culture may be had at a democratic price at all times of the year.

It might be thought that the purely gardening craft was losing dignity and importance by comparison with the engineer, the chemist, and the electrician. But the world still looks to the plant-breeder and evolutionist to solve many of its difficulties. He has kept his comparatively unobserved step in the march of progress by producing earlier and more prolific tomatoes; logan berries and other fruits; strawberries that bear all the year round; and other less notorious, though not less important, improvements. Some day, perhaps, he will tame some poisonous but precocious wildling, like the arum, and give us a new form of food that shall supersede many. We could do a great deal more with that wholesome plant, the lettuce, if it grew on a perennial rootstock, like the rhubarb or the seakale. When we note the vigor with which the dandelion shoots out in spring, we wonder why that member of the order was not the one selected by the first gardener to become the progenitor of the greatest salad plant. On the other hand, why cannot the same hand that has made the carrot become biennial, make the lettuce produce new hearts on an old crown? The way of evolution is slow, but, when we think how it has been in effect hastened by such hustlers as Mr. Luther Burbank, we are prepared to see all our old vegetables, excellent as they are, "scrapped" within the next decade.

Short Studies.

ISAMU'S ARRIVAL IN JAPAN.

THE arrival of my two-year-old boy, Isamu, from America was anticipated, as it is said here, with crane-neck-long longing. This Mr. Courageous landed in Yokohama on a certain Sunday afternoon of early March, when the calm sunlight, extraordinarily yellow, as it happens to be sometimes, gave a shower bath to the little handful of a body half-sleeping in his "nurse carriage," as we call it here—and, doubtless, half-wondering, with a baby's first impression of Japan, many colored and ghostly. Now and then he opened a pair of large brown eyes. "See papa," Léonie tried to make Isamu's face turn to me; however, he shut his eyes immediately without looking at me, as if he were born with no thought of a father. In fact, he was born to my wife in California some time after I left America. Mrs. Nogi attempted to save me from a sort of mortification by telling me how he used to sing and clap his hands for "papa to come" every evening.

I thought, however, that I could not blame him after all for his indifference to father, as I did not feel, I confess, any fatherly feeling till, half an hour ago, I heard his crying voice for the first time by the cabin door of the steamer "Mongolia" before I stepped in; I was nobody yet, but a stranger to him. He must have, to be sure, some time to get acquainted with me, I thought; and how wonderful a thing was a baby's cry! It is true that I almost cried when I heard Isamu's first cry. I and my wife slowly pushed his carriage toward the station, I looking down to his face, and she talking at random. Isamu appeared perfectly brown as any other Japanese child; and that was satisfactory. Mrs. Nogi said that he was brown all over when he was born; however, his physical perfection was always a subject of admiration among the doctors of her acquaintance. I felt in my heart a secret pride in being his father; but a moment later, I was really despising myself, thinking that I had no right whatever to claim him, when I did not pay any attention to him at all for the last three years. "Man is selfish," I said in my heart; and again I despised myself.

I learned that he made the whole journey from Los Angeles sitting like a prince on the throne of his little carriage; he even went to sleep in it on the steamer. He was ready to cry out whenever he lost sight of it; it was the dearest thing to him, second only to the bottle of milk, for which he invented the word, "Boo." We thought that it would be perfectly easy to take the carriage with us on board the train, as we could fold it up; but the conductor objected to our doing so, as it belonged to the category of "breakables." And we had to exclaim: "Land of red tape, again," at such an unexpected turn. Isamu cried aloud for "Baby's carriage" when the train reached the Shinbashi station of Tokyo; we put him again in his carriage, and pushed it by Ginza, the main street. And there my wife and baby had their first supper in Japan; Baby could hardly finish one glass of milk.

It was after eight in the evening when we took the outer-moat car line toward my house in Hisakata Machi—quite poetical is this Far-beyond Street, at least in name—wrapping Baby's carriage in a large *furoshiki*; it may have been from his kindness that the conductor did not raise objection. But afterward, when we had to change cars at Iidabashi Bridge, we met again a flat denial to our bringing it in; and we had to push it about a mile more of somewhat hilly road under the darkness. A few stars in the high sky could not send their light to the earth; the road was pretty bad as it was soon after the snow, though our Tokyo streets are hardly better at any other time. And it was rather a cold night. It goes without saying that my wife must have been tired of nursing Isamu all through the voyage; he had been sea-sick, and had eaten almost nothing. Where was the fat baby which she used to speak of in her letters? It was sad, indeed, to see Isamu, pale and thin, wrapped in a blanket, keeping

quiet in his carriage; and now and then he opened his big eyes, and silently questioned the nature of the crowd which, though it was dark, gathered round us here and there. His little soul must have been wondering whether he was taken. And we must have appeared to people's eyes quite unusual. In no more than the dying voice of an autumn insect, Baby suddenly asked mother where was his home. I am sure that, not only Isamu, but tired Léonie, too, wished to know where it was.

I think that it was not altogether unreasonable for Baby to keep crying all the time; I was rather suspicious, looking at Léonie, that her heart also wanted a heartfelt cry from the heavy, exotic oppression, whose novelty had passed some time ago. "Karan, koron, karan, koron"—the high-pitched song which was strung out endlessly from the Japanese wooden clogs on the pavement, especially in the station, had that forlorn kind of melody whose monotony makes you sad; and I dare-say Isamu thought that the Japanese speech might be a devil's speech—in fact, it is, as one of the earliest Dutch missionaries proclaimed. I noticed he raised his ears whenever he heard it. (By the way, he has already come to handling this devil's speech. My writing was interrupted awhile ago by his persistent request—in Japanese—to be taken to see his Japanese aunt; he is quite happy here as he can have as many aunts as he wishes.) And still he did not stop crying even after his safe arrival at this Hisakata home; it tried my patience very much, and I did not know really what to do with him. He cried on seeing the new faces of the Japanese servant girls, and cried more when he was spoken to by them. I got a few Japanese toys ready for him, a cotton-made puppy among them, as I was told a dog was his favorite; but he could not think that they were meant to amuse and not to hurt him, and the dog did not appear to him like a dog at all, but as something ugly. And he cried terribly. "Okashi," one of the servants, brought a piece of Japanese cake, thinking it would surely stop his cry. But he cried the more, exclaiming, "No, no!" The cake did not look to him like a cake.

The night advanced; a blind shampooer passed before the house, playing a bamboo flute. Isamu, though he was doubtless sleepy, caught its music, and jumped out of his little bed, exclaiming: "Andrew, mama!" A man by the name of Andrew Anderson, Léonie explained, used to call at his California home almost every evening, and sing to him in a sweet, high Swedish voice; so that his little memories were returning to him. For the last month, since the day of his departure from Los Angeles, his poor head had been whirring terribly through nightmare spectacles. Poor Isamu! But I felt happy in thinking that he was just beginning to feel at home even in Japan.

"Baby, where are you going?" I asked him, when he was making his way toward the front door; he stood still by the door, and caught another note of the shampooer's flute, and again cried most happily: "Oh, Andrew, Andrew!" However, he was sad a few moments later, not seeing any Andrew come in; and he began to cry. But sleepiness overtook him immediately; and I found him soon sleeping soundly in his own bed.

When two or three days had passed, he stopped crying, although he was yet far from being acquainted with his Japanese home. I found him trying to find something in the house which might interest his little mind. There are many *shojis*, or paper sliding-doors, facing the garden; they have a large piece of glass fixed up in their centres, over which two miniature *shojis* open and shut from right and left; and they caught his interest. He had been busy, I was told one day, opening and shutting them again since the morning; when I saw him doing it, he was just exclaiming: "Mama, see boat!" It was his imagination, I think, that he caught sight of a certain ship; he was still thinking that he was sailing over the ocean on the steamer. Surely it was that. When he stepped into the house, I observed that he was quite cautious about tumbling down; it was very funny to see his way of walking.

On the fifth day, he earnestly begged his mother to go home. "Where's Nanna?" he asked her. His grandmother, Mrs. Gilmour, who still remains in Los Angeles, was called by Isamu, "Nanna"; he began to recall her to his memory, and to miss her a great deal, as she was the dearest one next to his mother. When Léonie answered him "Far, far," in the baby's speech, he repeated it several times to make himself understand; and he turned pale and silent at once. He was sad. "Baby, go and see papa," my wife said to him; he slowly stole toward my room, and slightly opened my *shoji*, when I looked back. He banged it at once, and ran away crying: "No, no!" I overheard him, a moment later, saying to Léonie that I was not there. I must have appeared to his eye as some curiosity, to look at once in a while, but never to come close to. However, I was not hopeless; and I thought that I must win him over, and then he would look at me as he did his mother.

Isamu noticed that I clapped my hands to call my servant girls, and they would answer my clapping with "Hai!"—that is the way of a Japanese house. And he thought to himself, of course to my delight, that it was proper for him to answer "Hai" to my hand-clapping, and he began to run toward me before the girls, and kneel before me as they did, and wait for my words. I was much pleased to see that he was growing familiar with me. And he even attempted to call me "Danna Sama"—Mr. Lord—catching the word which the servants respectfully addressed to me. It was too much, I thought; however, I could not help smiling delightedly at it. My wife could not take to Japanese food at once; but I found that Baby was perfectly at home with it. I discovered, when he quietly disappeared after our breakfast, that he was enjoying his second Japanese meal with the servants. When they objected to him one morning, I overheard him exclaiming: "Gohan, gohan" (honorable rice). His love of Japanese rice was really remarkable.

Every morning, when an *ameya*, or wheat gluten seller, the delight of Japanese children, passed by the house beating his drum musically, Isamu's heart would jump high, and he would dance wildly, exclaiming: "Donko, don, donko, don, don," and get on the back of a servant—any back he could find quickest—to be carried like a Japanese child. This *ameya* is, indeed, a wonderful man for children: for one *sen* or so he will make miniature fox, dog, *tengu*, or anything imaginable with wheat gluten.

At first he was not pleased to ride on the girl's back; but soon it became an indispensable mode of carriage for him. It is ready for him any time; and the Japanese girl's large *obi* tied on her somewhat bended back makes a comfortable seat. And the funniest part is that Isamu thinks that the girl's back is called "Donko, don, donko, don." As our servants did not know a word of English, they could not express their invitation to get on their backs; and it happened, when an *ameya* passed by, that one of them acted as if he were being carried on her back, repeating the sound of the *ameya*'s drum: "Donko, don, donko, don." Isamu caught the meaning on the spot, and jumped on her back. And, afterward, this "Donko, don, donko, don" became a most useful word. When the girls say it, showing their backs, he thinks it proper, and even courteous, for him to get on them; and he will hunt a girl, repeating it, when he wishes to go out pick-a-back. And, again, its usefulness grew still more a day or two ago; he started to use it even when he wished only to go for a walk. I heard him saying awhile ago to Léonie: "Oh, mamma, donko, don, donko, don!"

He showed a certain pride in learning a few Japanese words which could be understood by the people around him. And he made it his business to sit down like a Japanese and say "sayonara" when a guest leaves the house; and he likes doing it. He shouted "banzai" for the first time the day my brother brought him two paper flags, one of them being, of course, Japanese, while the other was an American one. "You, Japanese baby?" Léonie asked him. "Yes," he re-

plied, turning to me. And when I asked him how he would like to remain an American, he would turn to my wife and say: "Yes." He was the cause of no small sensation among the Japanese children of this Koishikawa district, at least; his foreign manner and Western tint, and also the point of his having a Japanese father, I should say, made him a wonderful thing to look at for the children around here, while they felt some kinship with him. The fame of Isamu spread over many miles; even a *jinrikisha* man far away will tell you where "Baby San" lives, although Nogi's name may mean nothing to his ear. The children think, I am sure, that "Baby" is his own name; and whenever they pass by our house, morning or evening, they will shout loudly: "Baby San." And Isamu will rarely miss a chance to run out and show himself in answer. The little fellow is quite vain already. And the children who caught the word of "Mama" spoken by Isamu to his mother, thought that it was Léonie's name. I am told by her that she was frequently startled by a shout of "Mama San" from behind in the street. To be the mother of "Baby San" is not at all bad. I felt happy to see that he began to play with the Japanese children. We have a little play called "Mekakushi"; many children will make a large ring with joined hands, and choose a child and let him stand in the middle of the ring with his eyes covered with his palms. Mekakushi means "eyes hidden." The child at the centre will walk to the ring, and touch any child, and tell its right name; and then the child who was told its own name will take its turn to be in the middle. It happened one evening that our Isamu was obliged to stand in the centre; his bewilderment was clear, for he never knew the children's real names. But, accidentally, Léonie passed by on her way home; he took advantage of the chance at once, and called out loudly: "Mama, mama!" I am not told whether my wife fulfilled her duty to stand in the middle or not, however; we talked about it afterward, and laughed.

Our large, oval, wooden Japanese bath-tub furnishes him with one of the most pleasing of objects. He will get in it even when the water is hardly warm; he does not mind cold water a bit. If I happen to see him in there, he will proudly let me admire his stomach, which is, in fact, big for such a little child; it is his proudest exhibit. He calls it "Baby's Bread-basket"; I cannot help smiling when I think that it was wisely named. We have a little folklore story of a monkey and a tortoise; the latter was outwitted by the former when he attempted to get the monkey's liver. Mrs. Nogi told him of this story, changing the liver to stomach; the variation was effective, and took his little heart by storm. A day or two later, when a monkey player dropped into our house, and made the monkey dance, he kept watching its stomach; and when it was gone, he was tremendously sorry that he could not get near enough to see it.

Isamu hates anything which does not move, or makes no noise. When he has nothing new to play with, he will begin to open and shut the *shojis*; when he tires of that, he will try to go around the house and hunt after the clocks which I hid, as they lost the right track of the time since he came. And presently I send him away with a servant to the Botanical Garden to look at and feed the "kwakwa," as he calls the ducks.

He made a habit of playing with our shadows on the walls of the sitting-room after supper every evening. "Mama, shadow gone! Give Baby shadow, mama," he will exclaim, sulkily seeing his own shadow disappear. "Go to papa! He will give it to you," Léonie will say; then he will hunt for it, pushing his hand everywhere about my dress. "There it is, Baby," I will say, seeing his shadow accidentally appear on the wall. How delighted he is! He is not pleased to go to bed if he does not see the moon. But I doubt if he has any real knowledge of the moon. When I say that he must go to bed, he will go outside the door, and say there is no moon yet. Then I quietly steal into the drawing-room and light a large hanging lamp with a blue-colored globe, and say to him: "Moon is come now. See it, Baby!" He will be mightily pleased

with it; a few minutes later, he will be in bed, soundly sleeping. Really, his sleeping face looks like a miniature Buddha idol, as Léonie wrote me long ago.

Any child appears wonderful to his father; so is Isamu to me. I confess that I made many new discoveries of life and beauty since the day of his arrival in Japan. I never pass by a store in the street without looking at the things which might belong to children.

YONE NOGUCHI.

Present-Day Problems.

IS CRIME INCREASING?

THE returns relating to the condition of England and Wales with regard to crime in the year 1909 have just been issued by the Home Office in the form of a Blue Book. The introduction to these returns has been written by Mr. H. B. Simpson, a Home Office official, who is described in the introductory letter to the Home Secretary as a man who has had long and close experience of criminal questions. In this letter to Mr. Churchill it is expressly stated that Mr. Simpson's views are not to be taken as the official opinion of the Department. It is clear, indeed, that Mr. Churchill's enlightened policy runs on different lines. But the fact that they are published by the Department gives them an importance in the public mind which they would not possess if he were speaking as a private individual. As Mr. Simpson's statements are certain to be used by the political partisan for purely political purposes, it is important that they should be submitted to careful scrutiny.

It is perfectly true, as Mr. Simpson states, that there has been an increase in the number of indictable offences during the last ten years as compared with the preceding ten years. But there is little justification for the cry of alarm which he bases upon this fact. The increase is an increase which has hardly kept pace with the growth of population. Here are the figures. In the ten years, 1870-79, the annual average of indictable offences per 100,000 of the population was, in round numbers, 272. In the ten years, 1880-89, the annual average was 177; in the ten years, 1890-99, the annual average was 176 per 100,000 of the general population. As far as the most serious of all crimes is concerned, I mean the crime of murder and other crimes of violence against the person, life and limb were never so secure as they are now. The last ten years constitute an unexampled record in this respect. In the whole of the civilised western world there is no great State where life is so safe as it is within these shores. In circumstances such as these it is ridiculous to attempt to raise a panic about the increase of crime.

I readily admit that, during the last ten years, there has been an increase of offences against property, but here, again, the increase has only kept pace with the growth of population. In the year 1889, the population of England and Wales was close upon thirty-two millions; in the year 1899, it was close upon thirty-six millions. Within these two periods we have an addition of close upon four millions to the population, and it is, unfortunately, the fact that these additional four millions have contributed their quota to the total amount of crime. It is, however, noteworthy that, in spite of this considerable growth of the community, there has been, according to the police returns, a distinct diminution in the number of habitual criminals at large. In 1900, the police reported that there were 5,256 habitual offenders outside the walls of his Majesty's prisons; in the year 1909, there were only 4,064. It hardly needs to be stated that habitual criminals, men who make crime the occupation of their lives, are the most dangerous of all, and the fact that this class of offender is diminishing helps to eliminate one of the most menacing problems confronting modern civilisation.

After eliminating the professional offender we arrive at the conclusion that the increase of offences against

property is to be attributed, not to the man who makes crime the business of his life, but to the occasional offender; in other words, to the man who is led into crime by untoward circumstances. It is in his attempts to describe the conditions which have led these casual offenders into crime that Mr. Simpson exhibits such a complete lack of social insight. One would have imagined that an expert criminal statistician, possessing a rudimentary acquaintance with the literature of his subject, would, in his search for causes, have taken account of the after-effects of the South African War. It is an elementary commonplace among criminal statisticians that crime always rises after a great war. In Prussia, after the war with Austria in 1866, crime increased considerably; and in Germany, after the war with France in 1870, there was also an increase of crime. The same thing happened in France after the Italian and the Franco-German Wars. In the reports of the Prison Commissioners reference is made, taken account of the after-effects of the South African War on the growth of crime. But Mr. Simpson passes over this great event without a word.

A fact of even greater importance in the production of casual crime during the last ten years has been an unusual amount of economic distress. Here, again, we have evidence of a very weighty character in the statistics of pauperism. Between 1900 and 1909 the mean number of indoor and outdoor paupers increased from 688,000 to 793,000, an increase considerably greater than the increase of population. The growth of pauperism between 1900 and 1909 is a sad testimony to the unusual economic strain upon the community between those two periods. It is in these times of strain and stress that offences against property invariably mount up, and it is an eloquent tribute to the law-abiding character of the English population as a whole that, in spite of the hard times it has passed through in the last ten years, offences against property have not increased more rapidly than the growth of population. War and the poverty which results from war amply explain the criminal characteristics of the last ten years.

But Mr. Simpson practically ignores these great outstanding causes, and proceeds to adduce a number of vague and unverifiable personal impressions of his own. He alleges that there is a growing reluctance "to prosecute a thief, who, if he is convicted, is likely to be let off with little or no punishment." The prosecution of the notorious Dartmoor shepherd, and the sentencing of him to three years' penal servitude and ten years' preventive detention for the theft of the magnificent sum of two shillings, does not look as if the criminal were let off with little or no punishment. Are not sentences of this severity, which are defended by men who have occupied the position of his Majesty's judges, enough to make considerable sections of the public side with the lawbreaker instead of with the law? Mr. Simpson deplores this tendency. He takes alarm at it. He speaks as if it were the preliminary to a period when the country "will find itself faced by a flood of criminality against which police and prison authorities would struggle in vain." He practically pleads for a return to the old ideas of mere revenge and retaliation, apparently unaware of the fact that these ideas had to be discarded by statesmen like Sir Robert Peel and Sir James Mackintosh, in order that the country might be able to make some real headway against the growth of criminality. We are asked by Mr. Simpson to ignore the great work which has been accomplished in the last twenty years in elucidating the conditions which produce the criminal population. We have learned that this population is, in the main, produced by the adverse social and economic conditions in the midst of which such a large proportion of the community have to live. It is by an improvement of these conditions that we shall eventually diminish the proportions of crime. But if we turn our eyes away from this task, and concentrate them, as Mr. Simpson bids us do, upon "resentment against the criminal," we are certain to have criminality coming upon us like a flood.

W. D. MORRISON.

Letters to the Editor.

THE DECLARATION OF LONDON.

To the Editor of THE NATION.

SIR.—The Declaration of London is at present the subject of so much criticism that it is important carefully to consider its relation to existing international law, in order to understand the real nature of the changes which its provisions make therein. The article of the Declaration which proposes to place foodstuffs in the class of articles conditionally contraband has, in particular, been singled out for attack on the ground that such a step would endanger our food supplies in time of war; and to this contention an article in THE NATION of January 28th lends some support. If, however, the law as laid down by the Declaration be compared with existing theory and practice, it is clear that the change proposed is neither revolutionary nor retrograde, as certain writers would have us believe.

The rules governing the classification of contraband are at present a matter of some dispute. One body of writers holds that the term contraband should be confined to a narrow list of goods which are directly serviceable for military and naval purposes, and that such goods alone should be seizable as contraband. Another school of thought adheres to the principle that the list of goods to be considered contraband is variable, and depends upon the particular circumstances of the war. Thus, from this point of view, certain articles "*ancipitis usus*" (i.e., of use either for peaceful or military purposes) may be declared contraband and, under certain conditions, seized. Weight of authority would seem to rest with the second school of thought, and their doctrine is, moreover, in harmony with national practice. Since the end of the seventeenth century, the leading maritime States that followed the practice of declaring certain articles *ancipitis usus* to be contraband, and have seized them in certain circumstances. In this list of "conditional" contraband, foodstuffs have been included in almost every case.

There seems little doubt, therefore, that existing international law considers foodstuffs as "conditional" contraband, and thus the Declaration of London cannot be charged with any alteration of the law in this respect.

The vital question is not the inclusion of foodstuffs under the heading of conditional contraband, but the circumstances in which the foodstuffs may be seized as contraband.

On this point, the Declaration lays down that conditional contraband is liable to capture if it is destined for the use of the armed forces or of a Government department of the enemy State. Such a destination is presumed to exist if the goods are consigned to:—

- (i) Enemy authorities;
- (ii) A contractor established in the enemy country who, as a matter of common knowledge, supplies articles of the kind to the enemy;
- (iii) A fortified place belonging to the enemy;
- (iv) A place serving as a base for the armed forces of the enemy.

The Declaration further lays down that conditional contraband is not liable to capture save when found on board a vessel bound for territory belonging to or occupied by the enemy, or for the armed forces of the enemy. Thus, "the doctrine of continuous voyage" is not applied to the case of conditional contraband, save in the rare case when the enemy country has no sea-board. The question is, to what extent do these proposals modify existing law?

The vague *dictum* of the English Prize Courts that foodstuffs might become contraband "in circumstances arising out of a particular situation of war, or condition of parties engaged in it," did not determine what these circumstances and conditions should be; but in 1793 and 1795 the English practice was to seize all vessels laden with provisions which were bound to any French port.

Legal opinion reprobated this action, however, and England's example was not in general followed by other nations, who seem rather to have conformed to the doctrine of the United States that foodstuffs could be seized which were "destined for the army or navy of the enemy, or for his ports of naval equipment," the interpretation of the phrase being frequently a liberal one.

In 1885, however, in the course of her hostilities against China, France declared shipments of rice destined for any port north of Canton to be contraband of war, and Russia took a similar course in 1904. In both cases protest was made, and the severity of the original declarations was relaxed.

Thus, while it is probable that foodstuffs likely to fall into the hands of enemy authorities are liable to seizure, there is a tendency for nations to treat foodstuffs as liable to seizure if destined for the enemy country at all.

With regard to the application of the doctrine of continuous voyage to carriage of contraband, there is doubt whether this can be considered an accepted part of the Law of Nations. The American Courts used it extensively during the Civil War, but there has been widespread opposition to the practice. Great Britain has protested in the past, but events of the South African War seem to show some recognition of its validity.

Thus it would appear that the changes in existing law proposed by the Declaration of London are by no means so large as is said to be the case. The destination of foodstuffs quoted above as making them liable to seizure would probably do so in the existing state of the law, while the Declaration prevents seizure where the destination is other than those specified. Neither the French nor the Russian precedent could be followed in the future. As regards the doctrine of continuous voyage, the Declaration returns to what was generally accepted as law before the American Civil War, modification of which has never been widely accepted.

Finally, a word must be said with regard to the administration of the provisions of the Declaration. It is stated that before the International Tribunal can pronounce upon a case some time must elapse during which the decision of the National Courts will be taken as a guide for action. This is perfectly true; but it is to be remembered that National Prize Courts are not necessarily corrupt. Most of the long series of decisions of the English Prize Courts are admittedly fair and impartial, and only the narrowest insularity would ascribe to foreign Prize Courts a less high standard of judicial morality than obtains in England. To say that the provisions of the Declaration of London would consistently be construed against this country in foreign Courts is, however, to do nothing else.—Yours, &c.,

W. G. CONSTABLE.

Hampstead, February 2nd, 1911.

FORCED MILITARY TRAINING.

To the Editor of THE NATION.

SIR.—There is a sentence in Mr. Rowland Hunt's letter to you last week which I ask leave to repeat, in order that the subject may receive further consideration from your readers: "It is by no means insignificant that among the first to submit to the principles of Christianity were soldiers of the Roman Empire."

This matter has been copiously dealt with by Thomas Clarkson, the illustrious philanthropist and historian of the Abolition of the Slave Trade, who, having found that the Quakers were usually his staunchest supporters in the anti-slavery cause, became so much interested in the sect that he took pains closely to investigate their tenets, and, as the result, published his well-known book "A Portraiture of Quakerism." In an introductory note to the chapter, which extends to more than 100 pages, explaining the ground of their opposition to war, Mr. Clarkson says: "The Quakers have been charged with inconsistency in refusing military service and yet paying taxes which support wars. They do this from the example of Christ, who paid tribute money to a Government which was not only military, but distinguished for its idolatry and despotism. But they believe personal military service to be contrary to the positive commands of our Saviour."

Section 2 of this chapter is specially devoted to prove that the early Christians and Christian writers held it unlawful to fight and would not enter the Roman armies. Numerous instances are given, and Mr. Clarkson sums them up by saying: "In short, the belief of the unlawfulness of war was universal among Christians of the first two centuries. Every Christian writer of those times who notices the subject makes it unlawful for them to bear arms."

Having given his testimony to this effect, however, Mr.

Clarkson seems to think it desirable to add the following: "It is now difficult for Christians who have been so long accustomed to see wars commenced and carried on by their own and other Christian Governments to regard the Scriptural texts as to non-resisting evil and loving enemies except through a vitiated medium."

He then continues: "It will now probably be admitted that the early Christians refused to become soldiers, and that when men were converted to Christianity they left the army. Thus in the first two centuries, when Christianity was the purest, there were not any Christian soldiers. In the third century, when Christianity became less pure, frequent mention is made of such. In the fourth century when its corruption was fixed, Christians entered the profession of arms with as little hesitation as they entered upon any other occupation."

In concluding the arguments put forward as a justification of the Quaker tenets against war, Mr. Clarkson adds some weighty sentences of his own. I give his language in a condensed form as follows:—

"Let us then deprecate the necessity of wars. Let us not think so meanly of the Christian religion as that it does not forbid, nor so meanly of its power as that it is not able to prevent, the continuance of war. Speaking generally, few modern wars can be called defensive. Living as we do, in an almost inaccessible island, secured comparatively from hostile invasion, we do not seem sufficiently grateful to the Divine Being for the blessings we enjoy. We ought to regard the connection between moral evil and war in a much stronger light than we do at present, in order that we may suppose the precepts of Christ extend to wars as they do to private injuries.

"The argument which is put forward, that if we acted on the gospel policy our nation would be conquered by other nations, is neither more nor less than the same argument which the heathen writer, Celsus, used in the second century, that if all men became Christians and refused to fight, the Roman Empire would be overrun by the barbarians. But let us hope and believe that as a purer policy is acted upon, it will do good to our natures; it will be good for the peace and happiness of the world, and it will honor the gospel of Christ."

—Yours, &c.,

E. ALEXANDER.

Highgate.

To the Editor of THE NATION.

SIR,—I have read with interest Mr. Rowland Hunt's letter in your last issue. The true origin, however, of the conscientious objections of many people to armaments and military service seems entirely to escape his attention. If armaments and force were only employed by nations in defence of their liberties and the maintenance of right, such objections would very soon cease to exist. Mr. Hunt's admirable propositions are all vitiated by the reflection that most wars are fought on no such adequate grounds. The high court of posterity has condemned the Crimean War as a crime, and very likely may pass the same verdict on the South African War.

If the Government of Great Britain issued a proclamation that it was prepared to submit every question in dispute to the arbitration of the Hague Court, and would only make use of its forces if such arbitration was refused, I venture to predict that there would be fewer objectors to a system of national service.

The objection in this country to armaments is the fear that they may be used for selfish and unreasonable purposes. It is not surprising that the same fear exists in the minds of our neighbors. A distinct declaration of willingness to arbitrate on all and every question would settle this mistrust at home and abroad, and would tend to put an end to the present senseless competition in armaments.

There seems no adequate reason why such a course should not be pursued by this country quite independently of the action of any others.—Yours, &c.,

A. R.

February 2nd, 1911.

[This correspondence must now close.—ED., NATION.]

THE PRIVATE MEMBER.

To the Editor of THE NATION.

SIR,—I do not want to pose as being smarter than the Editor of the NATION, but it seems to me that Mr. Chesterton has made himself perfectly clear.

It is beyond dispute, I believe, that at one time a good

deal of legislation was actually initiated by the so-called Private Members of the House of Commons. Indeed, the comparative independence of the ordinary Member of Parliament then has been supposed to justify the existence of a Second Chamber in the Constitution, the business of this Second Chamber being to protect the country against hasty legislation.

Whether there be anything in that view or not, it is evident that the Private Member to-day has more to fear from the Executive than *vice versa*. In Burke's day the evil was that of an inner Cabinet, and it appears likely that, if carefully diagnosed, our trouble in things parliamentary may not be unlike his.—Yours, &c.,

E. S. EVANS.

Norbury House, London Road, Norbury, S.W.

PUBLIC SCHOOL RELIGION.

To the Editor of THE NATION.

SIR,—I trust that the correspondence on this subject is not yet closed. Perhaps you will let an ordinary form master state his impressions. I was present at the Conference at Eton, and nothing impressed me more than the evident desire of some of the headmasters to let assistant-masters know that they welcomed *sincerity* in scripture teaching.

This is a great gain. If only every assistant-master could feel absolutely sure that *all* sincere teaching was welcomed, there would be no problem with regard to the supply—there are enough good men already; the only question is, does public opinion permit them to teach what they truly believe?

In reading through the correspondence in THE NATION, one cannot fail to be struck with the tendency to confuse the idea of religious teaching in general with that of scripture teaching in particular. The best religious teaching given in a public school is the distinctive training, considered as a whole, and, though not wholly unconnected with the scripture lesson, it is obviously a much larger and a much more important whole.

The scripture lesson, however, raises a very *definite* issue; and, as a master who has tried for some years to teach the Bible to middle-school boys, I venture to join in this correspondence.

I. The critical position is right, though we may differ as to critical conclusions. Verbal inspiration is dying; but it dies hard—it must be killed in the class-room.

II. The critical position has come to stay. This is shown by the manner in which the reports of the Cambridge Church Congress (*i.e.*, Mr. Fletcher's paper) and of the Conference at Eton have been received. It is shown in many other ways besides—in the new type of Old Testament Histories that is supplanting the bad old books, based on exploded theories of inspiration—and in the type of question set in the Higher Certificate examination, where the critical position is pre-supposed.

III. The critical position can be explained to public school boys of any age. Thirty years ago, Edward Bowen was showing Harrow boys how to distinguish the different strata in Genesis. They were sixth form boys, it is true; but the same work can be done, less elaborately, with younger boys. The problem for the master is not what will the parents think? or what will the headmaster think? but, quite simply, how much can the boys appreciate? It is an educational, not a casuistical, problem.

IV. The value of critical teaching is beyond calculation. It is something *positive*—not, as the timid obscurantist may imagine, merely negative or merely pedantic. It is easy to sound false alarms about the destruction of old ideals, or to raise cheap sneers at J., E., and P.; but good critical teaching is never merely negative, and never merely concerned with documentary hypotheses. It is rather the exposition of a new point of view, which, though it can only be reached by a partial negation, is itself essentially positive and constructive. It unfolds the meaning of that progressive revelation, which, as far as the Scriptures go, culminates in the teaching of Jesus Christ himself; but which, by the operation of God's Holy Spirit, still proceeds.

Let boys once realise this conception, and what a vista lies open to our gaze! The biggest stumbling-block to all progressive thought is dead dogma. Let boys but see that

truth still lies ahead, and, perchance, in the years to come, in and through this school scripture lesson, we may do something to abolish the harsh distinctions, based on creeds outworn, which separate the cohorts of Christ's Militant Church.—Yours, &c.,

VERITAS.

February 7th, 1911.

To the Editor of THE NATION.

SIR,—In your issue of February 4th your correspondent, "Schoolmaster," concludes a letter to you on the above subject, by saying "I should be much interested to know how 'Old Westminster' would get over this difficulty," the difficulty referred to being the alleged impracticability of having religion taught by competent persons in modern public schools.

With your indulgence, sir, I am delighted to respond. "Schoolmaster" states that my solution of the problem appears very simple to me. This is a bold, and also an inaccurate, assertion. The solution suggested seemed to me to be ideal, but not necessarily free from its own difficulties. I still consider it the ideal to be aimed at, but if lack of space or of suitable opportunities render complete conformity impracticable in any given circumstances at particular schools, all that can be done is to approach in each case as near as is possible to the system of perfection. Even where the work (which, let me remind "Schoolmaster," is not confined to teaching Bible history) cannot be left entirely to the "specialists," they should certainly have the controlling hand, under the headmaster, and should obtain what assistance is necessary from those among the other masters who are more obviously fitted for the work. Just as there are conceivably some men who are not the most suitable agents imaginable for imparting religious knowledge to boys, so are there very probably others who are more particularly fitted for the task. These could complement the labors of the "specialists." Moreover, the practice of giving up one hour, probably the first on Monday morning, for Scripture lessons throughout the whole school, is capable of considerable expansion, and a number of forms could easily be taken in rotation by one man.

One word in reply to Mr. H. Norbury Nuttall, who also addresses you concerning my previous letter. He goes further than "Schoolmaster," who, like the rest of us, inquires how we can best teach religion, for he appears to ask in effect "why teach it at all?" He argues that the sons of godly parents receive while at home all the religious instruction they require, while those from godless homes should not have "religious doctrines rammed down their throats" at school, a process clearly contrary to their parents' wishes.

Now it is, of course, purely a matter of personal opinion, but I for one hold that the godly parents will not wish their sons to be entirely absent from religious influences during term time, which occupies more than half the year; while for those boys who receive no religious care at home, some such attention at school is all the more necessary, if only for educative purposes. On the other hand, Mr. Norbury Nuttall would seem to say "he that is irreligious let him be irreligious still, and he that is ignorant let him be ignorant still!" Such is surely an odd view to take of the needs of young persons who may be held to be in process of education.

However, I fear that Mr. Nuttall has missed the whole point of this correspondence, if, indeed, he has read it through. The burden of "Old Etonian's" original article, and of the subsequent letters, has been that receiving a knowledge of Biblical history, as such and by itself, merely as a feat of memory, does not form a sufficiently broad or helpful religious education for thinking boys and future men of the world.

We may not all wish our sons to "go to church, &c.," as Mr. Nuttall phrases it, but we probably all desire them to become moral persons, useful citizens, strong men. And I cannot help feeling that the ability to recite a list of Jewish Kings, of minor prophets, or of apostolic ports of call, or an academic knowledge of the facts of Bible history, however complete, cannot form an adequate equipment with which to encounter the difficulties of life, in its philosophic, spiritual, and moral aspects.—Yours, &c.,

OLD WESTMINSTER.

February 7th, 1911.

To the Editor of THE NATION.

SIR,—The correspondence resulting from the article by "An Old Etonian" in your issue of January 7th has, I believe, so far been confined to the question of religious teaching in boys' public schools. It may not be without interest to some of your readers to include girls' public schools also in the discussion.

Until recently, it has been customary for the head-mistress to put the Old Testament teaching into the hands of the form-mistress, but to give all New Testament lessons herself. By this means, the form-mistress is more or less at liberty to make her lesson a perfunctory business or a real opportunity for historical and ethical instruction, as she pleases, whilst the head-mistress secures continuity in the New Testament teaching, and herself comes into contact with each girl in her school. But at present, there is a reluctance on the part of some teachers—specialists in other subjects—to undertake even the Old Testament lessons. Hence the demand is growing for specialists in Scripture teaching, and vacation courses of Biblical study have been held in order to afford the requisite training. Thus, it appears that the reform urged by your correspondent, "Old Westminster," is already on its way, at least in some girls' schools.

But teachers who have the necessary knowledge and force of character for this work must be given a freer hand than heretofore in the matter of syllabuses and books. I cannot speak with certainty of the present customs with regard to examinations, and subjects for study. But I distinctly remember the futility of my efforts in 1901 to teach the Book of Judges intelligently to a third form, provided with Maclear's Old Testament History. The amount to be got through in the year precluded a liberal use of the Bible narrative, and Maclear's style effectually killed all interest in the Jewish heroes. At this date, the usual books studied were the Pentateuch, the Books of Kings and Chronicles, and the Synoptic Gospels. Candidates for the Joint Board Higher Certificate had to offer practically a general knowledge of the Old Testament with special books in the New.

As a refreshing contrast to my own attempts to grapple with impossible conditions in the junior school, I may set my experience as a pupil in the Fifth and Sixth at a good High School in 1892-3. Once a week our form-mistress taught us from the Books of Kings and Chronicles for examination purposes. These lessons were to me as interesting as her English history or literature lessons. One on Elijah's despair under the juniper tree still lives in my memory. Even the exigencies of marks could not deprive the lessons of their ethical character. The other Divinity lesson was given to the whole upper school on Fridays by the head-mistress, and was popularly called her "sermon." The subjects of these addresses varied, but the building of Solomon's Temple and the religious beliefs and customs of Egypt were among them. These lessons were duly written out on Saturday or Sunday and submitted to the form-mistresses. The best essays were then passed on by them to the head-mistress for special commendation. It is, of course, impossible to say how much of the impression produced by such teaching was due to early home training, but my belief is that others appreciated the teaching as much as I did. I am convinced that your correspondent is right when he claims that ethical and religious teaching in schools of every grade must be given to enthusiastic specialists, who know and can impart their subject. I would go yet further and say that the State must choose between reinstating the Scripture lesson in its old place of honor and banishing it altogether.—Yours, &c.,

February 7th, 1911.

Z.

[This correspondence must now close.—ED., NATION.]

REX v. MYLIUS.

To the Editor of THE NATION.

SIR,—May I, through your columns, enter a strenuous protest against the manner in which the late trial of Mr. Mylius was conducted? The character and the statements of Mr. Mylius matter as little as did those of Wilkes. What does matter is whether the law observes a correct attitude to an individual citizen. As you say, in your issue of February 4th, "it would have been wise to avoid the appearance of harsh or arbitrary proceedings." The

prisoner was dealt with on a "criminal information," which requires no affidavits! Precisely, and when he appeals against this procedure, he is told by the Judge that it is sanctioned by another case or cases "within my own experience." What does this mean? Does it refer, for instance, to some such case as that of Colonel Lynch, or to more ordinary examples? We are left without precise information, and our prisoner is silenced by a pompous generality. Chapter and verse were the rule of old English Law, and dispensation from the harassing need of quoting precedents was used only by the Star Chamber and similar bodies. Again, is it usual for a judge to suggest to the jury that they need not leave the Court? Really, one thinks of Lord Ellenborough, and goes further back to general warrants. Because a foolish and scandalous assertion is wantonly made and feebly supported, is that a reason why the machinery of justice should not run on even lines? Justifications are needed for unusual and extraordinary procedure at crises and in desperate circumstances; but in ordinary cases an excess of legal severity merely serves to palliate proved guilt. I do not think anyone can see the spectacle of British Justice straining its forms against the prisoner in this case, and German Justice straining its forms in favor of convicted foreign spies, without feeling a pang of humiliation.—Yours, &c.,

HAROLD W. V. TEMPERLEY.

Peterhouse, Cambridge,
February 6th, 1911.

THE KING'S ENGLISH.

To the Editor of THE NATION.

SIR.—"H. V. R." is reactionary. "Smoke-room" (or "Smoker") needs no further defence than that it falls into line with French and German usage.

"Betterson" also is good German. Does your correspondent prefer "amelioration"?

Ours is not a Latin tongue, and we lose vividness when we ignore our good Anglo-Saxon roots in word-forming. Contrast that feeble euphemism "corpulent" with the kindly and expressive German word "well-bellied."—Yours, &c.,

E. W. D.
Malta, January 23rd, 1911.

Poetry.

A JOURNEY.

Oh, speed! Oh, haste!
Plunge to the solid land,
Ship, having traversed the intervening waste
Of tiresome water! Plunge onward till you stand
Unmoved by baffling gales and dashing whirl
Of sea-foam, nor by the fog encumbered! Drive
Your black prow through the successive waves that curl
In seething semicircles up your keel!
O ship, I would your engines were alive,
And that your furnace-heart might feel
The passion blazing in your plates of steel!
I would you were alive!

Speed, every wheel
Spinning along the rails!
Speed through the vineyards, make the white olives reel
Before the windows like a flashing show,
So quick that eyesight fails!
Devour the ground, with glowing phlanges pacing
Mile after mile, swift as the wild star racing,
And, like a comet's hair,
Let the smoke phantom mark the course you go!
Shriek through the cities of old Popes and kings,
O train, that lovers all may know
A love is passing by, beyond compare
With other loving things!

Old Popes and kings, why were you born so soon?
You should have waited till it was love's noon,
And known the noontide where
Love climbs the zenith by a golden stair:
You should have waited, kings!

Another city there!
And evening falls
On quiet houses, roofs, and purple walls,
And streets deserted in the lamplight glare,
And lovers wandering home.
So evening falls to them, and so to me
It will fall to-morrow! Quick let the darkness come,
Building her shadowy bridge between the days,
Brief as one stepping-stone, that I may see
Sunset and sunrise mingle, and the night
Slide like a torrent lost down hidden ways!
O darkness, bring to all else delight,
Bring them the appointed lane, the orchard deep,
Or twilit chamber, let the dumb midnight keep
Their secret in the wood or by the stream!
But to me bring a nothingness of sleep—
Oh, swift as love's unerring sight,
And deeper than a dream—
A dreamless sleep!

To-day!
Is that a gleam
Of morning through the rain,
Whitening the billows of careering steam
And glimmering on the pane?
To-day—to-day!
Let me not miss one moment of its hours,
That march in triumph up their sacred way
Of wind and sun and showers;
But swiftly they must march—Oh, swiftly too!
How many moments till I see again
The Paris streets, the bridges, and the Seine,
And cross the city through
To a land of streams, and poplar trees,
And sandy hills? Then narrow seas—
Dim cliffs—the hedgerow squares—
And London with her darkening towers,
And columned smoke, and lurid summer airs,
The platform, and the pausing train,
The unconscious crowd—Then, speed through street and
lane,
Speed to a house of consecrated stairs—
The common, golden stairs!

How the horizon flares
With flaming signals beckoning me!
I hear the great cliffs cry,
Calling across the sea;
Earth, sea, and heaven, commingled in a rout
Of glory, pass, the clouds and waters flee,
Shouting together, and from the depth of sky
Great stars invisible shout;
The sun and moon embrace,
And all the spirits of the world go shouting by.
O men and women, shall not you rejoice,
And the whole living race,
Dwelling in wilderness and houses dear,
Join with the firmament's exultant voice?
For I come near—Oh, near!
And speed along the street
(Make lightning slow, my feet!),
And reach the door, and hear
Behind the door, where is love's dwelling-place,
A sudden stir inside—
A stir, a footstep! How shall a board divide
Two souls that burn to meet
As meeting flames? It opens—opens wide—
Wide as two arms! And then a breast, a face—
Two arms, a breast, a face!

The World of Books.

THE "NATION" OFFICE, THURSDAY NIGHT.

THE following is our weekly selection of books which we commend to the notice of our readers:

"Journals of Ralph Waldo Emerson." Edited by E. W. Emerson and W. E. Emerson. Vols. III. and IV. (Constable. 6s. net each.)

"John Viriamu Jones, and other Oxford Memories." By E. B. Poulton. (Longmans. 8s. 6d. net.)

"A Diplomatist's Wife in Many Lands." By Mrs. Hugh Fraser. (Hutchinson. 2 vols. 24s. net.)

"Dramatic Values." By C. E. Montague. (Methuen. 5s.)

"The Party System." By H. Belloc and C. Chesterton. (Swift. 3s. 6d. net.)

"The Lone Heights." By B. Paul Neuman. (Murray. 6s.)

"Pages d'Automne." Par A. Mézières. (Paris: Hachette. 3fr. 50.)

* * *

BOOKMEN will turn with special interest to the literary articles in the new "Encyclopædia Britannica," and among these a great many of the biographies must be included. The article, "Literature," does not come within the fourteen volumes already published, but in "English Literature," "French Literature," and "German Literature" we have three articles of capital importance. The first of these runs to thirty-eight pages, and has been written by Mr. Henry Bradley, Professor J. M. Manly (of Chicago), Professor Oliver Elton, and Mr. Thomas Seccombe. It is certainly a notable contribution, and achieves its purpose of forming "connecting links among the successive literary ages . . . attention being paid in the main to the gradually developing characteristics of the product, *qua literary*." Professor Manly sums up well the forces that went to the making of Elizabethan literature. These were three in number—the political settlement, which culminated in the later reign of Elizabeth; the religious settlement, whereby the Anglican Church grew out of the English Reformation; and "the prefatory work of culture and education, which at once prepared and put off the flowering of pure genius." It is to this last force that Professor Manly gives most weight. The others were sectional, and acted through special channels. "But Renaissance culture, in its ramifications and consequences, tells all the time and over the whole field."

* * *

MR. SECCOMBE has some suggestive remarks upon the conditions of literary production in the nineteenth century. That English literature has been made a subject of regular instruction for a special degree at the universities is not, he thinks, wholly an advantage. It has led to investigations which show that what were regarded as facts in connection with our earlier literature can no longer be accepted, and it has brought about the historical and comparative treatment of literary types. "On the other hand, it has concentrated an excessive attention, perhaps, upon the grammar and prosody and etymology of literature, it has stereotyped the admiration of lifeless and obsolete forms, and has substituted antiquarian notes and ready-made commentary for that live enjoyment, which is essentially individual, and which tends irresistibly to evaporate from literature as soon as the circumstance of it changes. It is prone, moreover, to force upon the immature mind a rapt admiration for the mirror before ever it has scanned the face of the original." This, in our opinion, is a sound contention. The teaching of literature, if not at the universities, at any rate in schools, too often becomes teaching what other people have said about literature. Names and dates and criticisms are learned by rote, while the literary masterpieces are either neglected or receive only secondary attention. The result is that fewer people read, as Fitzgerald did, "for human pleasure." They treat books, as Swift said some men treat lords, "learn their titles by heart, and then boast of their acquaintance."

* * *

ANOTHER aspect of contemporary literature to which Mr. Seccombe gives some attention, is the multiplicity of books. Formerly, when a good book appeared on a certain subject it was considered a decisive bar to another on the same subject unless fresh facts were discovered or new material formulated. No such bar exists to-day. Mr. Seccombe thinks that the explanation is to be found in the advance of education. Where one man could be found to write competently

on a given subject in the middle of the nineteenth century, there are now fifty. And the misfortune is that nearly all of them do write. "This continual pouring of ink from one bottle into another is calculated gradually to raise the standard of all subordinate writing and compiling, and to leave fewer and fewer books rooted in a universal recognition of their intrinsic excellence, power, and idiosyncrasy or personal charm." From what direction we may look for a check upon the enormous over-production of books, it is difficult to see. Carlyle's "great discovery" that literary men should be paid in proportion to the amount they did not write, is hardly practical, and in the meantime the work of differentiating the excellent from the merely competent and the competent from the worthless is every day becoming more arduous.

* * *

PROFESSOR SAINTSBURY's article on French literature is allotted forty-four pages, as against seventeen pages for Professor Robertson's "German Literature." Professor Saintsbury pays the Romantic movement the compliment of saying that by it "the poetical power of French has been once more triumphantly proved, and its productiveness in all branches of literature has been renewed, while in that of prose fiction there has been almost created a new class of composition." Among its defects he notes a loss of the finish of French prose style and some depreciation of the language by the admission of slang and foreign terms—dictum which we should accept with considerable reservations. He also emphasises the value of recent French criticism, holding that "it is, perhaps, larger in actual proportion and of greater value when considered in relation to other kinds of literature than has been the case at any previous period." Professor Robertson sees in the drama the main point of interest in contemporary German literature. He does not think that the permanent repertory of the German theatre has been much enriched by the works of living playwrights, but he cites Otto Ernst, Max Halbe, E. Rosmer, and G. Hirschfeld, in addition to Hauptmann and Sudermann, as dramatists who "are unwilling to rest content with their successes and are constantly experimenting with new forms."

* * *

THE biographical articles in the "Encyclopædia" form, as we have said, an important section of the contents for the student of literature. It is natural to begin these with the article on "Biography," by Mr. Edmund Gosse. It is far too short, occupying but two pages. We are not sure that we agree with Mr. Gosse when he says that "broad views are entirely out of place in biography, and there is, perhaps, no greater literary mistake than to attempt what is called the 'Life and Times' of a man." It is true that the genuine memoir is personal, and does not aspire to the "dignity of history," but it is impossible to discriminate too nicely between them. The "Memoirs" of Philippe de Commines—who, by the way, is given little more than a column in the "Encyclopædia"—belong to both classes, and so do hundreds of other books.

* * *

WHEN writing of the "Dictionary of National Biography," Sir Leslie Stephen laid it down that "the most important and valuable part of a good dictionary is often that dry list of authorities which frequently costs an amount of skilled labor not apparent on the surface, and not always, it is to be feared, recognised with due gratitude." The bibliographical notes in the "Encyclopædia Britannica" are not in all cases as full and up-to-date as might be wished. Thus, under "Anne," there is no mention of Mr. Herbert Paul's brilliant work, though F. E. Morris's "The Age of Anne," a school book published in 1877, is included. Under "Byron" we miss Mr. Robert Edgecumbe's "Byron: The Last Phase"; under "Calvin," M. Boissert's biography is not mentioned; the bibliography of "André Chénier" does not include a single biography, and is meagre in other respects. Under "Chateaubriand," M. Victor Giraud, perhaps the greatest living authority on the subject, is entirely ignored. "Euphuism" takes no note of Professor Feuillerat's authoritative work on John Lyly, though like the "Encyclopædia" it was issued by the Cambridge University Press. We might make a much longer list of omissions. It would be impossible to make all the bibliographies exhaustive, but in each case the reader might have been referred to a work where a good bibliography could be found.

[February 11, 1911.]

Reviews.

CHRIST AND CIVILISATION.*

THIS book is excellent. I do not say this because so many of the contributors, as well as the editors, are either my personal friends or past pupils. I was, indeed, asked to write to the whole work an introduction which would have laid stress upon a matter here overlooked, the significance of Jesus, not as regards his teaching, but as to the interpretation of his person and his love. I have nothing except what is complimentary, which is here the same thing as true, to say about the editing, which is all that could be desired. Sir Percy Bunting knows, as few do, what it is to be an editor, and, had it been necessary, would not have hesitated to play the part. Dr. Paton shows to advantage, were it only in the selection of contributors; while Dr. Garvie has also consented to do work and placed his name on the title page. Yet it is more in the selection of contributors than in the use of the blue pencil that the careful editing has been observed.

In "Christ and Civilisation" there is an honest attempt made from the side of the Free Churches to discuss the relation of Christianity to what is termed now the Industrial and now the Social Problem, in the introductory paper where Dr. Scott Lidgett introduces the whole. If any person desires to know the religious basis of the present agitation on behalf of working men, he cannot do better than study this paper, which (a) is occupied with the basis of legislation of Old Age Pensions, which is provision by the State for those who have served it well, yet for many reasons are unable to serve it longer; (b) there is a reform of the Poor Law advocated; (c) also the cheapening of the necessities of life, which is said to increase the purchasing powers of the poor; (d) there is said to be an economic problem which includes religious, moral and intellectual elements of "profound importance"; (e) then there is a problem which involves the purchase by the community of land and of houses; multitudes of people are said to live in the heart of our great cities, "physically degenerate, mentally unstable, demoralized and materialized, the victims of our past, not the heirs of Christian civilization"; (f) there is also a problem concerned with their education; (g) the slum child may be said to be, in a concrete form, the expression of the problem, and his being makes it so serious that we must attempt its solution, which is held to be "inevitable" the moment "imagination" remembers that our "own brothers and sisters are concerned," and the problem of "the city slum" does not stand alone. But the Poor Law, which is a social problem by itself, raises the old question of the people who struggle to deal with a question that may be termed modern. "The collective wisdom and the inspiration of brotherhood" are said to lie at the root of any attempt to solve economic doctrine, "the modern social problem"—said to be essentially spiritual also—produced in its most aggravated symptoms by the unrestrained freedom of industrial development. And so the conclusion is reached that the peculiar responsibilities of the Christian Church spring from the "Fatherhood of God," which "can only be set forth by the Brotherhood of Man." Hence, "God is Love" has no significance unless it be translated into the Love of Man, which Christianity does. Therefore in it no dualism is possible. The Church is here accepted as equal to organized Christianity, and only where Christianity is organized is "the social problem reached." Difficulties said to be deep-seated here lose their significance. It is no time to say that the mission of Christ and of his Church is simply to save individual souls, for no individual does or can exist unless he be a child of the past. Hence the Gospel is traced, not to persons who can, but to those who cannot, realize their personality otherwise than through social relationships, and salvation includes "the transformation of these relationships and all that springs from them." Personality thus is said to unite powers directed to the Spiritual and powers directed to the Physical as well, and to unite them,

* "A Survey of the Influence of the Christian Religion upon the Course of Civilisation." Edited for the National Council of the Evangelical Free Churches by Rev. John Brown Paton, D.D., Sir Percy William Bunting, M.A., Rev Alfred Ernest Garvie, D.D. Law. 10s. 6d. net.

not at an external, but at a vital and organic point. Hence, Christ is said not to concern himself with political, economic, and social conditions, but to minister physical healing while giving it for spiritual ends. The principle then of love, is material only so far as the material enters into and affects for evil or for good, as it assuredly does, the spiritual life of love which is governed by the spirit of Christ. Hence it is argued that the main service of the Church is to witness to the ideals by which men and States must live, and great emphasis is laid on baptism which is an entrance into that holy love which "manifests itself in a consistent temper," and which "answers to the Truth of God and to the realities of life." The conclusion of the whole matter is said to lie in the application of the two great commandments—"supreme love to God, equal love to our neighbor."

The contributors to the book have been selected with great care, and from many branches of the Free Churches. Dr. Scott Lidgett, as well as the Rev. H. B. Workman, represents Methodism. Dr. Orr and Professor Cuming Hall represent Presbytery; Mr. Angus represents the Baptists; Doctors Bennett, Garvie, Scullard, Rose, and Professor Andrews represent the old historic Puritanism of England and its tradition, while Professor Henry Jones has had in his keeping Welsh passion and fervor, and Calvinistic Methodism. The division is fair, especially if it be considered what England owes to the Puritans, and consequently to their representatives. Dr. Bennett refuses to distinguish in ancient Israel between Church and State, but says that in the Old Testament it is impossible to ignore altogether the place and the influence of religion in society. While modern distinctions were unknown, yet it was conceived as a unity, whether of history or religion, which the people understood. What I should personally have preferred would have been a discussion as to the possibility of freedom being realized in the Church. Dr. Garvie has added to his editorial labors on this volume a paper which includes the Christian ideal as it is revealed in Jesus. "By Jesus" would have been better than "by Christ"; as it is we are all less here concerned with an interpretation of Christ's person than of the speech of Jesus. Mr. Franklin Angus, the wearer and the bearer of an honored name, has a paper on the Gentile environment, which may be said to discuss, along an opposite line to that which is commonly taken, the preparation for the Christian ideal. He takes the familiar lines of Matthew Arnold as embodying a picture of society in Rome:—

"On that hard pagan world disgust
And secret loathing fell;
Deep weariness and sated lust
Made human life a hell."

Dr. Bartlet discourses on "the Christian ideal as realized in the primitive church," and he throws special emphasis on the continuity of Christ with Judaism, as characterized by "an idyllic simplicity." The paper is marked by all Dr. Bartlet's independence, and also by his fulness of knowledge. I have only one thing to say in relation to it. Must he not carry throughout this idea of Judaism as immanent in all Christianity? His conclusion is, while men learn to say "What have we that we have not received?" "with double reverence they learn to use all their powers and goods as in trust from God for His end of ends, His Kingdom of holy Love among men." Dr. Orr has a subject he has made peculiarly his own. He wrote on it earlier under the name of "Neglected Factors in the study of the Progress of early Christianity." Dr. Scullard has also a most interesting paper on the influence of the Christian Church in the Empire. He limits it, indeed, by restricting its authority, and an authority which is the heritage into which it came. He emphasises the shortness of time the Church had, and that it was never established, and that it came too late to avert the ruin of the Empire. He raises a very interesting question when he asks: "Can a State ever be Christianized?" He discusses the two ways in which the Church as such affected the social life of the Empire, in the realm of ideas, and in the sphere of conduct, by dwelling much on equality, liberty, and fraternity, but makes them narrower than they need be when he confines the Church too much to the ideas set in circulation by the French Revolution.

Dr. Workman's paper is on the Middle Ages, and is

The usefulness of the new Encyclopaedia Britannica.

For special and general purposes.

At the series of dinners at which the editor lately entertained the contributors to the eleventh edition, scholars in every department of research bore testimony to the usefulness of the new Encyclopaedia Britannica from their special points of view. Thus on the occasion when contributors in the field of the sciences were present, the most eminent authorities pointed out that, to one engaged in the pursuit of any science, the new edition must prove invaluable as presenting the co-ordinated results of research in all the allied sciences. Upon other occasions historians, medical men, lawyers, theologians, spoke of its usefulness to them.

It is much that, in a book which covers the whole field of knowledge, the treatment of any particular subject should be ample, authoritative and original enough to prove practically useful even to the specialist who devotes himself to its pursuit. The attainment by the Encyclopaedia Britannica of this high standard, indeed, may be described as the essential feature of its development from the original three volumes which, a century and a half ago, presented the reader with a modest collection of general treatises upon the arts and sciences. The usefulness of the Encyclopaedia Britannica, however, as it now appears, greatly exceeds the special service it performs for its possessor in the pursuit of his calling; for it affords him a ready means (and often the only available means) of acquiring information, also, over the vastly larger regions which, much as they may interest him—closely, even, as they may concern him—extend in every direction far beyond the range of his immediate knowledge. Thus he knows that the particular advantages foreseen in the possession of such a resource will prove but a small item compared with the sum of its general usefulness—a usefulness which it is impossible for him to forecast or estimate unless he can also enumerate all the questions which may occur to him in the course of the coming years.

Second Chamber, Referendum, Free Trade, Tariff Reform.

He can indicate to himself its general value only by such scattered instances as may occur to his mind. He may think first of politics as the most fruitful source of questions—questions as to which he may not unreasonably hold it to be his duty, as a citizen of a democratic state, to form opinions upon the best available evidence. The necessity of forming opinions, indeed, is amply recognised, since none are without them, and for the precarious foundations upon which they are often based, an excuse may be found in the fact that satisfactory evidence is hard to come by.

The topics named at the head of the last paragraph have been subjects of, at least, academic discussion from as far back as a reader's memory extends; yet he will not feel himself to be peculiar if he have formed opinions upon them without reference to any evidence that might serve to answer even obvious questions. *How is the referendum employed in Switzerland, where it has long been established?*¹ *How are the second chambers of other countries constituted—of the United States, for example, of Australia, of South Africa?*² *With what does a country pay for its imports?*³ *What was the character of Irish parliaments before the Unions?*⁴ He will find material for the answers to such questions in the new Britannica, and find it with the more satisfaction because the book was not written as a political guide, but as a record of facts and of the results of investigation in every field.

In the matter of foreign politics, the newspaper reader is kept well-informed, indeed, as to the events and changes which take place day by day. But a telegram concerning the Socialist or Freisinn parties in the Reichstag; the report of an alleged indiscretion on the part of the Kaiser; news of still another complication among the various races which make up the empire of Austria-Hungary, convey little of their true significance to him if he is not acquainted with the groups which divide the German Parliament⁵; with the philosophy which lies behind the utterances of William II.⁶; with the race problem which besets Austria-Hungary⁷, and still presents perhaps the most vulnerable spot in the armed peace of Europe.

A great resource.

If the reader desert the field of politics, questions that call for an answer, subjects which it would not be amiss to read up, will crowd into his mind from quarters so diverse that their very variety will seem to him no mean argument in favour of possessing a book which deals with all knowledge, by means of no less than 40,000 articles, easily to be found,

¹ In the article **Referendum** (vol. 23), the Rev. W. A. B. Coolidge, himself a resident in Switzerland, gives a detailed account of the manner in which the referendum is employed in the country where it is best studied.

² The functions of a second chamber are dealt with, from a theoretical standpoint, in a section of the article **Government** (vol. 12), and, from a practical standpoint, in the section "Constitution and Government" of the articles upon the various countries of the world. Thus the character of the American Senate, undoubtedly the most powerful among second chambers, is described by Mr. James Bryce in the article **United States** (vol. 27), while the second chambers in various countries of the British Empire are described in articles **Canada** (vol. 5), **Australia** (vol. 2), **New Zealand** (vol. 19), **South Africa** (vol. 25). The last-named article gives particulars of the chambers established by the Act which came in force in May of this year. Under the heading **Parliament** (vol. 20) will be found a history of both the English Houses. Not the least of many instructive articles to be consulted in this connection is **Senate** (vol. 24), in which Mrs. Wilde (Miss A. M. Clay) describes the Roman body from which not only our word, but also our main conceptions of a second chamber, are derived.

³ A full discussion of this question will be found in the article **Balance of Trade** (vol. 3), with which may be compared such other articles as **Economics** (vol. 8), **Free Trade** (vol. 11), **Protection** (vol. 22), **Tariff** (vol. 28).

⁴ The history of the old Irish parliament—or rather the parliament of the English colony in Ireland—is given under **Ireland** (vol. 14) section "History" (51,000 words). It may, perhaps, have occurred to some readers of this advertisement to ask, as a question not wholly ridiculous, what consideration, in the old Irish parliament, was given to Ulster and to the Protestant members of the community? Such inquirers will learn from the article mentioned something which, doubtless, they knew at one time but had forgotten, namely, that the Irish parliament was wholly Protestant. Indeed, the Union, which took place in 1801, was warmly supported by the Roman Catholics, who saw therein their only hope of political emancipation. Further details concerning this event in British history are given in the articles **Cratton** (vol. 12), **Flood** (vol. 10), **Pitt** (vol. 21).

⁵ The article **Germany** (vol. 11) deals very clearly with the parliamentary groups, of which it distinguishes no less than 13.

⁶ The attitude of the Kaiser is analysed and illustrated by many characteristic quotations from his speeches, in the article **William II** (vol. 28).

⁷ The reader will not easily, it is believed, find elsewhere so useful an account as is given in the article **Austria-Hungary** (vol. 3) of the warring interests of the Magyar, German, Czech and other Slav peoples of the empire.

because they are arranged in alphabetical order. There is security in such a number, it gives promise that no reasonable question will fail of its answer. And since there is no knowing what topic may arise, in conversation, in the reading of books and newspapers, in the course of the day's work, the subscriber foresees a value in such a resource because it also takes account of matters which, if they were named to him, might mean nothing, or nothing of immediate interest. He may be no sportsman, no mathematician, no geologist; he may as yet have experienced none of the fascination which attaches to the work of archaeologists, or of the students of comparative religion; but the value of his possession would be infinitely less in his eyes if it neglected these subjects. And when the volumes themselves come into his hands (as is now the case with a considerable body of advance subscribers) he will everywhere discover the interest of matters hitherto entirely alien to him.

The special order form for prompt applicants shews that those who now signify their intention to subscribe secure an advantage in price, for they obtain the work at the rate of only 15/10 a volume. It is intended that the ultimate price shall be the same as that charged for the 9th edition, when it was first published, namely 30/- a volume. Prospectus, specimen pages and application form should be asked for at once. Write name and address below, tear off this corner, paste on back of a postcard, or enclose in unsealed envelope with 1d. stamp, and post to

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what we expect from him, a scholarly discussion of the aspects in which the Church showed itself to be, even in the dark periods of its history, the Church of Jesus Christ. Mr. Andrews touches on the social principles and effects of the Reformation, but does not recognize sufficiently the work done by the Church of Rome in social ethics, and does not sufficiently dwell upon the distinctions of its men and its treatment of morality. It was less a revival than an attempt to enforce the principle of continuity in religion. Professor Hall deals with the Evangelical revival, and argues that it was not a theological movement, though it was eminently that as well as other things. Dr. Holland Rose deals with Christianity and the French Revolution in a spirit and way which is worthy of him and of his theme, which he may be said to have thus stated:—

"The Puritans set up an ideal of national life far higher, purer, and juster than had been seen since the evil days when the Christian Church linked itself to the decaying body of the Roman Empire. The saints blundered, it is true, and rendered their sway irksome beyond measure to the average man. That was to be expected. Nevertheless, they had sown seed which bore a bounteous harvest in New England, and which served, even in Old England, to thwart the Romanising efforts of James II. Who shall say how far the Revolution of 1688 and the Declaration of American Independence in 1776 were due to the dauntless spirit of the older Puritans?"

Professor Dennis deals with the social influence of Christianity in modern foreign missions. Professor Henry Jones's paper, which concludes the whole, is worthy of him, and of the volume in which it stands.

I have given a fair, though not an exhaustive, analysis of the book, and I end much as I began. I was asked, as I have said, to contribute a paper. It was to be on Christ in History. If it had assumed form, the others would have had to be varied in this respect. Jesus was a man among men. Love to Him became the signal of all that was good in what we call the Christian Religion or Church. He was an interpretation of man as of God. Love to Him therefore became love to the race. Every man seemed to be a possible Christ, and each was interpreted throughout as such, thus becoming a great force in man and in mankind.

A. M. FAIRBAIRN.

THE LAND OF LITTLE.*

We have all admired Lafcadio Hearn, and have been grateful to him for giving us the one real glimpse that any English writer has given into the intimate life of old Japan. But for him, we in England should know nothing genuine about a manner of existence which is fast vanishing, if it has not vanished already. If he had not lived for so many years in Japan and become acquainted, through his Japanese household, with the realities of everyday customs, we could only have turned to the hasty conjectures of tourists, or the amorous impressions of Pierre Loti. Our knowledge would have been worse than complete ignorance, and we might just as well have taken it from comic opera. At first, no doubt, Hearn idealised the people and the fairyland he lived in. The present collection of his letters frequently shows disillusion. But both by sympathy and investigation he was able to discover the inner soul of a remote and divergent race as no other foreigner has discovered it. He revealed to the West the finest side of the ordinary old-fashioned life in Japan, and it was a high service to Japan as well as to us. As the distinguished Japanese poet, Yone Noguchi, said on hearing of Hearn's death, "How many battleships we had better have lost!"

Certainly, as we said, this collection of excellent letters, nearly all addressed to Professor Basil Chamberlain within the first two or three years after Hearn's arrival, often express disillusion, and that on two opposite sides. First there was the horror with which any artist like Hearn must necessarily have regarded the intrusion of Western civilisation into a country that had reached so high a development of its own. The perversion of Japan into a hideous and unreal imitation of a European Power has been one of the most melancholy spectacles of the last thirty years. Poor as Japanese art usually was when compared to Chinese, yet at its worst it was better than Birmingham's.

* "The Japanese Letters of Lafcadio Hearn." Edited with an Introduction by Elizabeth Bisland. Constable. 12s. net.

And, strange as the old Japanese code of law and honor may have appeared, we imagined in it a strain of nobleness finer, at all events, than the process under which Dr. Kotoku, his wife, and the other "conspirators," were murdered a week or two ago—a process apparently borrowed from the Spanish executioners of Ferrer. It is nearly twenty years since Hearn's letters were written, but he saw the change already fast approaching. "I detest," he writes:—

"I detest with unspeakable detestation the frank selfishness, the apathetic vanity, the shallow vulgar scepticism of the New Japan."

And in another letter:—

"I can't see anything for Japan now but revolution or a military domination; the latter would, I think, be the best. No; the country is certainly going to lose all its charm—all its Japaniness; it is going to become all industrially vulgar and industrially commonplace. And I feel tired of it."

Instead of the true Japanese people, he foresees nothing but "addle-pated young sports with billycocks and cigarettes and billiards on the brain—with no hearts, but Waterbury watches substituted instead." We perceive an artist's almost invariable despair at the sight of "progress." "I am beginning to doubt civilisation as a human benefit," he writes. But more profound was his growing dissatisfaction with the littleness of the whole country and people. "I think we have thrown Japan morally back a thousand years," he writes; "she is going to adopt our vices (which are much too large for her)." And again:—

"The Orient knows not our deeper pains, nor can it even rise to our larger joys; but it has its pains."

Certainly, there is something miniature and finikin about the whole country, with its dwarfed trees, inland seas, and paper houses. Even to-day, with factories, battleships, and khaki armies thrown in, it remains something of a charming doll's-house, or a doll's-house that has lost its charm.

As so often happens in times of rapid transition, the right man was born only just in time to catch the old charm before it vanished for ever. Even in point of style, one would have said Hearn was exactly the right man, at least till one read his letters. The style in his published books was nearly always miniature, finikin, and precious, reminding one of constricted trees and amethystine dragon-flies. We learn from these letters that it was the result of continuous labor. He appears never to have published anything till he had re-written it at least five times. Care and precision are excellent qualities, and anything is better than slap-dash—anything but such preciosity as makes one sick. "Then let me hope," he writes in one book:—

"Then let me hope that the state to which I am destined will not be worse than that of a cicada or of a dragon-fly: climbing the cryptomeries to clash my tiny cymbals in the sun, or haunting the holy silence of lotus pools with a soundless flicker of amethyst and gold."

It is quite pretty; but when Hearn tells us that he re-wrote those concluding words seventeen times before they expressed the impression in his mind, we can only say that he had better have stopped after the second time and done something else. How repellent this laborious felicity may become is shown by such a sentence as one quoted with apparent admiration by Miss Bisland:—

"And interweaving with it all, one continuous shrilling—keen as the steel speech of a saw—the stridulous telegraphy of crickets."

Miss Bisland appears to admire that sort of petty affectation (so suitable to much of Japanese art and existence), and, indeed, a few lines above this passage, she imitates the kind of thing with great success:—

"Poe alone," she says, "of all our native writers, has had that passion for assonance, for melodious words for their own sakes, for velvety undertones, for plangent phrases, for canorous orisomology."

That is what the vulgar British soldier calls "a fair old basinful." But in reading Hearn's letters we discover with pleasure that this languishing preciosity was not his natural style at all. As early as 1893 he writes:—

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over; and now and then we are brought up, almost with a smile, by the shock of a split infinitive. Perhaps in his letters Lafcadio Hearn's best work is really to be found. At all events, they form a fine body of literary criticism, interspersed with rare and pleasing glimpses of the real and vanishing life around him.

A SPRIG OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.*

We may say at once that the lady who gives us these varied and over-flowing volumes is also the author of "Coke of Norfolk"—and "that's for remembrance." What we mean is that merely to retranscribe the title is to awaken in many minds a memory of pleasant reading, and create in them a lively hope of more to come. The hope will prove no phantom.

Although Mrs. Stirling is here, of course, driving on a new track, her great-grandfather Coke is not completely lost to sight, for some part of the present book deals with the life of her other great-grandfather, who was Coke's contemporary and friend. Briefly, the "Annals" are those of the Spencer-Stanhopes, a family of credit and renown in the great county where they have so long been settled. "Few houses, perhaps, among their muniments contain such a wealth of human interest as the old Yorkshire house from which are collected the present jottings. Far into a past which is remote its records reach, down to a present which is intimate." Of these records, Mrs. Stirling has made effective use. Up and down her pages she scatters letters and memoranda of most diverse interest, and out of them produces, or assists the reader to produce in his fancy, a variety of pictures of English country life in the eighteenth century, pictures of the University and the Town, pictures of foreign travel—one of the latter of which concerns so important an event as the marriage of the Dauphin and Marie Antoinette. Central in Mrs. Stirling's scheme is Walter Spencer-Stanhope, "the Macaroni, the youth about town, the Member of Parliament during forty years, the friend of so many of the celebrated men of the eighteenth century."

Walter, or Watty, grows up under the reader's eyes, from the days of his first "britches," the material of which not only cost three-and-six a yard to the two uncles who were a father to him, but incidentally reveals to us some tailor of the period as a genius in his business, for he called it "Everlasting." Mrs. Shandy, by the way, should have known of this when (in the same century) she discussed with Mr. Shandy the earliest breeching of Tristram. What was "Everlasting"? When did it come in? What boy first wore it? Shakespeare seems unfamiliar with the stuff, though he could scarcely have bestowed it on his King Stephen, whose "breeches cost him but a crown," and were reckoned by the monarch sixpence dear at that. The allusion to "blistered breeches" in "Henry VIII.," as the context shows, has no bearing upon boyhood; though, in the history of the human boy, there have been seasons when breeks and blisters have kept frequent and painful company. Rabelais, denouncing the "lousy college of Montaigne," tingles visibly, though it is not upon record that he was whipped there. But, in fine, was Walter Spencer-Stanhope the first person mentioned in chronicles who wore Everlasting breeches?

If breeches, then cake; and the trousered boy winds up an early letter from school at Bradford:—

"... and if, Dear Madam, you can be prevail'd upon to send me something pleasing to ye Palate, it will (if possible) make me more willing to fulfill that Duty which is incumbent upon, Dear Mamma, Your Dutifull Son, Watt Stanhope."

Applications for cake shock none of us, but we must steadfastly remember the domination of Pope's couplet ere we can reconcile ourselves to didactic verse in letters from school. Watty has been dining at Raby Castle, "at their Quality Hour of Four"; and the wine flows from his head to his pen in a style that the great Wegg (with apologies to some recent correspondents of *THE NATION*) was to carry to a Wegnerian stone's throw of perfection:—

"Vain Emptiness of Grandeur! Vain it me
Wheth~~or~~ I Water drink, or Burgundy?
Better and wholesomer by far the first,
If my Desires are but to quench my Thirst."

* "Annals of a Yorkshire House, from the Papers of a Macaroni and his Kindred." By A. M. W. Stirling. Lane. Two Vols. 32s. net.

"What price" blistered breeches for the boy who submitted this to-day to the editor of his school magazine? But with the influence of Mr. Pope still unconquerably to the fore, it was tonish in Watty's time, and a proof of application to the Muses. His master, Dr. Butler of Bradford, may have lent a hand at the lines; for he wrote, when Watty left him for Oxford: "I never had a young gentleman under my care that was a more sensible or good scholar."

At Watty's Oxford—the "Seat of Learning"—most things are still in capital letters, but wine goes up in estimation.

"My Uncle Spencer has sent me 3 dozen of excellent Medeira, 11 dozen of as good Port, and 3 of Callaveller, whch is as yet untasted."

And this postscript, hard on the arrival of the wine: "I am now perfectly Habituated to a College Life." By the way, once again, has Callaveller in drink gone the way of Everlasting in wear? Is there a "fellow in the cellarage" still able to identify it, and could Keats have worked it into an ode? In print it seems to miss the finer sentiment of tipple, the magic of the blushing Hippocrene. Perhaps a little mustard on the palate, or one drop of allaying Thames. . . .?

If this was an age of deference to didactic poetry and callaveller, not less was it an age of color and courage in clothes, and the young gentleman commoner is in the movement. In the matter of breeches, Everlasting cedes to black silk, and there are requests for ruffles, ruffled shirts, and a bag-wig. Professors of Terpsichore come upon the scene, with French masters and fencing masters. A visitor to Oxford not exactly in the fashion, unless it were the "high Roman," was Dr. Johnson, who is thus reported on by Walter:—

"We had Johnson, the Author of the Dictionary, &c., to dine with us to-day. He seems to be a Man of very strong sense and deep judgment, but not remarkably bright or of quick apprehension. He is also fond of sarcasm, which has a double portion of Gall flowing from the most disgusting Voice and person you almost ever beheld."

We may discount this a little by observing that Walter was a kinsman of the Lord Chesterfield whose pretensions as a patron Dr. Johnson had recently demolished in a noble and scaring preface.

From Oxford the favored young man went upon the Grand Tour, and it is startling to read that he and his companions at first proposed to anticipate the style of an ex-President, by shooting for the pot as they travelled. True, it was then eight or ten days from Dover to Paris, and someone may have hinted at herds of big game. Simpler counsels prevailed; they braved the foreign highway in chaises. Arrived at the capital of a "Land of Superstition" (the France of Voltaire and the Encyclopedists), the voyagers fell among "a very innumerable group of Paris Laquais," from whom they were rescued by Mr. Norton, who "introduced us into the politest Company and procured us the best masters in every Exercise." From France they penetrated into Switzerland, a country of "hopping Gentry" (fleas) and "the finest Trout in the world."

Walter's letters are for the most part lively and sensible, and the prejudices occasionally betrayed in them are those of a very young English student abroad for the first time in his life. His account of the wedding of the Dauphin and Marie Antoinette is a valuable footnote to history, and he sketches graphically enough the bridegroom who was to mount the throne, and go to the scaffold as Louis XVI. Prophesying that the Dauphiness "will have great Influence in this Country," he continues:—

"Not that I prophesy this from any appearance of a remarkable fondness in ye Bridegroom, for at ye Chapel, instead of showing any tender Regards or fond Attention towards his Wife, he seemed to me to be only anxious of saying his part true; and in ye Gallery, when he sat next to her, if ever he endeavored to look at her tenderly, he put me in mind of Cymon, who gasped and said nothing."

The bashful, loutish Louis of this period could hardly have been better described.

Though there is not about young Walter the glamor or splendor of young Beckford (who, to be sure, was a millionaire, with a relish of the young Disraeli), he cuts a very proper figure in the company he styles polite, and in London was a Macaroni of the most original. Differences of time and taste allowed for, the Macarons may be said to have

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re-visited the glimpses of the town in the eclectic sect of the *Aesthetes*, whom Du Maurier and the satirist of the Savoy touched up for us in the 'eighties. Caviare to the general were the predilections of Macaronis and *Aesthetes* alike, but the *Aesthetes* went one better. It was something in an age of burgundy (to say no more of callaveller) for these youthful exquisites to cry up tea and posset, but Postlethwaite lunches on the contemplation of a lily. And was the nosegay of the size of a cauliflower equal, as an emblem, to the green carnation?

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We are not sure that Goldsmith was in need of any vindication. To us he appears, not as he was seen by his contemporaries, by Kenrick or Kelly, or Garrick, or Walpole, or even by Boswell or Johnson, but as he has painted himself in his works—one of the most sympathetic and engaging of authors and of men. Like his own village preacher, "e'en his failings lean to virtue's side," and if a good deal of what has been said against him were justified, we should still not hesitate to take him to our hearts. But this attitude will not satisfy either Mr. King or Mr. Moore. Both have a full share of the Irish quality of combative ness, and both are determined that those who maligned or misrepresented their hero shall be made to rue it. There is, however, a difference in the manner they wield the shillelagh. Mr. Moore's is the bigger, but Mr. King's is the better book. Mr. King is concise, witty, moderate, and therefore convincing. We close his book with a feeling that it is the fruit of a thorough knowledge of the subject, and that if Goldsmith has been made to appear in the best light, the other members of his circle have not been unfairly driven into the shadow. Mr. Moore, on the other hand, is unwarrantably prolix. At the slightest excuse he plunges into a digression. He conjures up imaginary scenes, paints imaginary portraits, and is full of what "we may be sure" or "it is probable" has happened. Further, Mr. Moore has adopted the plan, as ineffective as it is unworthy, of trying to elevate Goldsmith by depreciating nearly every other writer he mentions. "We venerate Dryden, we admire Pope, we esteem Young, we quote Gray, we neglect Thomson, we ignore Johnson, we tolerate Cowper, but we love Goldsmith." This is a sentence from the first page of Mr. Moore's "Introduction," and it is typical of a good deal that follows. For his own part, Mr. Moore may "ignore" Johnson and "tolerate" Cowper, but in doing either he is far from representative of the great mass of readers, as a glance at the number of reprints of English classics should have told him. And in what way does it redound to the credit of "The Vicar of Wakefield" to say that "Joseph Andrews" is read "not for entertainment, but as a study in the literature of the eighteenth century"? Has Mr. Moore ever read the book which Hazlitt, not without reason, held to be the model from which "The Vicar of Wakefield" was drawn? Horace Walpole is fairer game, and receives some shrewd strokes from Mr. King, but Mr. Moore's violence defeats its purpose.

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* "Oliver Goldsmith." By Richard Ashe King. Methuen. 6s.
"The Life of Oliver Goldsmith." By F. Frankfort Moore. Constable. 12s. 6d. net.

formed upon a French dancing-master's idea of the mincing of Agag, King of the Amalakites. We look at his portrait and see him standing on his toes, raising his eyebrows with the supercilious leer while he insists on his cicerone repeating his information that the little man with the protruding upper lip is Doctor Goldsmith. He was the sort of man who would go to the Royal Academy banquet and assume from the moment he entered the room that it was given in his honor."

It is interesting to compare the views taken of Boswell by the two biographers. Both agree that Goldsmith's social failure, his supposed inferiority in conversation, was due to national rather than personal grounds. "It was," says Mr. King, "the failure of an Irishman with an irrepressible, irresponsible, irreflective, and fanciful tongue in contentious or matter-of-fact company." It sprang, Mr. Moore tells us, from the inability of Goldsmith's associates to understand "the Irish form of humor of pretending to be a fool." The tradition of Goldsmith's failure to shine in a mixed company rests chiefly on the testimony of Boswell and Garrick. Garrick's evidence may be dismissed, for we know that he bore Goldsmith a grudge on account of a passage in the "Enquiry into the Present State of Polite Learning in Europe," which he chose to interpret as an attack upon himself. Boswell's hostility is less intelligible. Both biographers again agree—and are, we think, right—in putting a large part of it down to jealousy. "Boswell's jealousy of Goldsmith," says Mr. King, "was such that he not only noted eagerly everything Johnson said to the poet's disadvantage, but again and again provoked his idol into hasty disparagement of his rival in that idol's good graces." But whereas Mr. King thinks that Boswell acted on the whole "rather out of meddlesomeness than out of mischievousness," Mr. Moore charges him with "malicious intention," and fills page after page with contemptuous sneers at undignified, strutting, self-important little Boozzy. He even goes further, and, with a view to showing that, as a conversationalist, Goldsmith was at least the equal of his great contemporaries, he writes:—

"Johnson and Burke were amazingly fine talkers, no doubt, but they never seem to be quite at their best when Mr. Boswell had his notebook out. Frankly, we confess that the records of conversational feasts of the literary circle tend to convey the impression that they were commonplace, trivial, and generally 'rudderless.' That word we have ventured to press into our service, because we think that it conveys the impression that remains on the mind after reading an account of the conversations reported by Boswell. And it is just because Boswell reports everything with scrupulous care—the appearance of the people, their movements, their peculiarities, and their other human traits—that his book must be esteemed as one of the most vivid ever written. His reports of the trivialities and the inanities are infinitely more valuable than a verbatim record of all that Johnson said about the infidelity of Hume, or whether or not fighting was actually unscriptural. But the conversation was 'rudderless.' It went flying about the table like a ship without rudder. Every current affected it. . . . It went at 'everything by fits but nothing long'; it zigzagged over topics by the score, but it made no progress; it got no nearer to the heart of the matter. It was bewildering. It led nowhere. It was profitless."

"Really, we do not think that the conversations, as reported by Boswell, differ so greatly in character from the gossip of the wheezy village gaffers round the ale-house fire."

We regret that Mr. Moore should have marred a book which has many merits by including judgments of this *sauvage* character.

As to the vanity which forms a considerable part of the Goldsmith legend, Mr. King rightly describes it as a sort of inverted vanity—"not an eagerness to display powers of which he was conscious, but an eagerness to reassure himself of the possession of powers of which he was diffident." And he hits off the difference between Goldsmith and Boswell by saying that "Boswell in conversation reminds you of a girl who is self-complacently admiring herself in the glass; Goldsmith of a girl who hurries nervously to the glass to reassure herself that all is right." That is just it. It is just that touch of diffidence and that anxiety to please that make sensitive, impulsive, good-natured, gullible Oliver Goldsmith what Macaulay called him, "one of the most pleasing English writers of the eighteenth century."

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* * *

IN "Château d'Oex" (Methuen, 6s. net), Mr. E. D. Lampen has found an unusually good subject, not only because it is virtually a virgin one—there existed but one book, published locally thirty years ago, that dealt with this popular winter resort—but because its scenic character and history are alike romantic and stirring. The name itself is that of one of the three Swiss Communes; and the village of Château d'Oex is the centre of a group of similar places, each of which has played its special part in the troubled history of the country. Legend attributes the foundation of Château d'Oex to the building of a sanctuary here by St. Donat, a disciple of Columba, about 600 A.D.; but centuries earlier there were settlers in the valley, attracted by the fine pasturage it still affords. The place first assumed definite historical importance under the not unkindly tyranny of the Counts of Gruyère (1100-1500). Then, about the middle of the sixteenth century, the Bernese, who had gradually acquired wealth and political power, added it to their territory—to be ousted in their turn by the combined French and Vaudois in 1798. Mr. Lampen writes with fluency and insight upon the many political and military upheavals that Château d'Oex has witnessed, upon invasions and counter-invasions, even unto the modern peaceful invasion of the cosmopolitan tourist. With the physical attractions of the place he is genuinely in love. The grandeur of the mountains here is not of that overwhelming type that is rather depressing to his wit; but the locality yields to none in Switzerland for beauty and health-giving quality of air, and the formation of the country appears to be almost ideal for the pursuit of winter sports like skiing and "tailing," which he enthusiastically describes. The book is illustrated by photographs, and drawings in color by Miss Alice E. Prangley, who has realised delicately the tender beauty of the snow effects without incurring the reproach of a too Christmas-card-like treatment.

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MR. BRAM STOKER's "Famous Impostors" (Sidgwick & Jackson, 10s. 6d. net) contains the histories of famous cases of imposture, "grouped together to show that the art has been practised in many forms." The book opens with an account of some pretenders to royalty, beginning with Perkin Warbeck, and ending with Mrs. Olive Serres, who claimed to be the legitimate daughter of Henry Frederick,

Duke of Cumberland. Next we have three practitioners of magic, Paracelsus, Cagliostro, and Mesmer, the first of whom is described by Mr. Stoker as "a great and fearless scholar, as earnest as he was honest, as open-minded as he was great-hearted," and the last being included because "however sound his theory was, he used it in the manner or surrounded it with the atmosphere of imposture." John Law, the Tichborne claimant, and the Chevalier d'Eon are treated at some length and given separate chapters. Then there are accounts of Dr. Dee, La Voisin, and others famous in the records of witchcraft, while a number of successful hoaxes furnishes entertaining material. But Mr. Stoker's best chapter is his last. It is headed "The Bisley Boy," and sets forth the evidence for the theory that Princess Elizabeth died suddenly as a child in the Cotswolds on the eve of a visit from Henry VIII. Henry's violent temper led Elizabeth's governess to pass off a substitute on the Princess's father, and this substitute was none other than an illegitimate son of the wife of the Duke of Richmond. According to the theory, the fraud was not detected and the boy reigned as Queen Elizabeth.

* * *

MR. BERNARD RACKHAM's introductory notes to the drawings by Mr. William Gibb in "A Book of Porcelain" (Black, 12s. 6d. net) are a slight but effective sketch of the history of porcelain manufacture in China, Japan, Italy, France, Germany and England, with special reference to the thirty drawings of examples of the porcelain of these countries contained in the Victoria and Albert Museum. In so rapid a review of a huge subject—other wares are dealt with besides those made of the hard paste commonly identified with porcelain—gaps were inevitable, but on the whole Mr. Rackham may be congratulated on the niceness of his historical selection and his direct, straightforward style. Mr. Gibb's drawings reproduce wonderfully the color and texture of the originals. The fact that they were done before the fine Salting collection became national property may be held to discount the importance of their subjects, but it should be remembered that this only affects the Oriental porcelain, and the examples of Sévres, Meissen, Bow, Chelsea, Derby, and other centres, could hardly have been chosen with better judgment or portrayed with greater sensitiveness.

* * *

PRINCIPAL GARVIE'S "The Christian Certainty Amid the Modern Perplexity" (Hodder & Stoughton, 7s. 6d. net) is a collection of eighteen "addresses, lectures, and articles, prepared at different times for various purposes within the last eight years." They cover a very wide range of subjects and are evidence of Dr. Garvie's care to keep informed of the many conflicting currents of thought in present-day theology. But they have the unity that belongs to a philosophical system, and the reader feels himself in the hands of a man who has thought out his position carefully and is able from that vantage ground to offer advice to those feeling their way to a position for themselves. Dr. Garvie's standpoint may be called a modified Ritschlianism, and two of the most interesting of his essays are those on "The Value-Judgments of Religion," and on "The Influence of Ritschl and his School of Evangelical Theology in Britain." In the former, Dr. Garvie defends, with some asperity, the theory of value-judgments against the criticisms of Drs. Denney and Orr, but does not himself accept it without qualifications. He holds that "there is an intellectual element in religious knowledge, which in the theory of value-judgments does not get justice done to it," and also insists that "the faculty of estimating values is not an individual function, subject to no law but subjective fancy and whim," but is rather "the realisation in the emotions of ideals of universal validity." In the latter essay, recognising that criticism of the Ritschlian theology abounds in this country, he has chosen the more grateful task of "showing wherein it can be helpful to us in dealing with the questions which clamor for an answer." Both essays are of high value and should help to clear away several misconceptions that beset Ritschlianism in this country. Other essays deserving note are "The Personal Equation in Theology," "Modernism," and "Recent Christology," but the whole book is highly suggestive and ought not to be neglected by any student of theology in its modern developments.

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Up till Thursday morning the Stock Markets cherished a hope that the Court of Directors of the Bank of England would announce a reduction of the Bank Rate at their weekly meeting. The return and Market conditions would seem to justify such a step; but it was not taken, and some disappointment was naturally felt, though it is probably only a temporary postponement. The American Market has been fairly strong, and Tariff Reformers in the City have observed, with some surprise, that American and Canadian Industrial Shares are quite firm and cheerful, in spite of the reciprocity agreement. Evidently the holders of these shares do not believe in Protection. It is remarkable, as a Tory broker with a sense of humor admitted to me yesterday, how well the Home Markets do in spite of the wickedness of the Radical Government. Since this Government came into power, many jobbers who used to be in various Foreign and Mining Markets have joined the Home Industrial and miscellaneous groups. There has, indeed, in the last two years, been more speculation and activity in these departments than in any other. Moreover, the Home Railway Market is now in a healthier position than since Lord Salisbury's Government plunged us into the Boer War. Even Breweries are recovering in a most extraordinary way. A fresh stimulus has been given to things at home by the January returns, which show that the magnificent upward rush of trade is still unchecked. And yet most of our competitors are suffering from business depression. Russia is an important exception, and I notice that the Duma's Budget Committee claims to have an actual surplus of revenue over expenditure. If that be so, the rumors of another loan may be dismissed, unless railway construction requires it. There appears to be plenty of capital in London available for any promising investment, either at home or abroad, in spite of the enormous capital issues of last year. I hear, for example, that the demand for American short term notes now actually exceeds the supply. These and other signs point now to a substantial recovery in the gilt-edged market. But it will evidently require an enormous effort to extract an issue of small bonds to bearer from the reluctant lethargy of the Treasury and the crass bureaucratic obstinacy of the Post Office, which is issuing ridiculous reminders of the facilities it offers to the public.

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friendly feeling of Japan to foreigners took shape in the project of a highly protective tariff, Japanese bonds have become less popular, and some English investors are beginning to sell. A Four Per Cent. Japanese Bond is not very attractive at 92 $\frac{1}{2}$, considering the domestic discontent and certain foreign dangers. Formosa, Corea, Mongolia are all formidable problems, and the increasing hostility towards Japan of Chinese, Russians, and Americans ought to be weighed in estimating the value of Japanese Bonds. However, the Government will probably make an attempt this year to convert some of the debt into Fours.

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